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TWENTY YEARS OF

PAKISTAN

1947-1967

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FIELD MARSHAL MOHAMMAD AYUB KHAN, N. Pk., H.J.
President of Pakistan

TWENTY YEARS OF

PAKISTAN

1947-67

Introduction by

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First Published: August 1967

Price: **Library Edition**
(Full Cloth Binding) Rs. 10

Popular Edition
(Soft Cover Binding) Rs. 6

PAKISTAN PUBLICATIONS
RAWALPINDI — DACCA — LAHORE — KARACHI
HEAD OFFICE: P.O. BOX 183, KARACHI, (PAKISTAN)

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Pakistan completes twenty years as an independent nation-state in 1967. Those who had seen or been a part of the transition to independence and lived to acquire a new citizenship and a new identity are fading out. A whole new generation is growing up to adulthood. These are young men and women who were born and brought up as Pakistanis. They have known only freedom and will never quite know what it was to struggle for it—to argue, canvass, campaign, protest, demonstrate and suffer for it. Those were exciting times in spite of all the misery and humiliation which the dual domination of the British and the Hindu majority community meant for the Muslims of the subcontinent. Past as it all is, contemporary history shows that nothing becomes part of a national consciousness more firmly than the heroic nature of a people's collective struggle.

Pakistan's struggle for independence, as I have suggested above, was twofold—from the British and from the Hindus. The British were in political control; the Hindus, because of their numbers, threatened to relegate the Muslims to a position of social and economic, and, after the British left, political subservience. Throughout centuries of living together, Hindus and Muslims had never produced a homogeneous society. That they had been able to live together at all was mainly due to the fact that the Muslims had come as conquerors, and as conquerors they did their best to make themselves welcome to the local population. Later, the British advent to power not only neutralised their position but placed them in a disadvantageous position in comparison with the Hindus in their relationship with the new rulers. The Hindu nationalism of the nineteenth century began with the memory that the Muslims had once taken power from them. Later, in the twentieth century, the memory and the animus became acute as the British departure became more imminent. The

Muslims although conscious of their separate character not only in material manifestations of life but in the spiritual and emotional responses, in values and judgements, did not yet think of separate statehood for a long time, but tried their best to find a *modus vivendi* with the Hindus. When at last they did think of a separate state, in 1940, the struggle for it thenceforward was intense and unflagging.

Although born in triumph, Pakistan was born to adversity. The other parties concerned had frowned at the idea of a separate country, and so when it materialised with their unwilling acquiescence, there was a strong backlash. There was unfair demarcation of boundaries and the creation of the tragic Jammu and Kashmir problem, an inequitable distribution of assets, and an unparalleled scale of communal convulsion followed by the biggest movement of population known to history. The hostility of the Hindu rulers against the idea of Pakistan escalated to the state level, and has since then proved incurable. The country itself came, inevitably, in divided halves, separated from each other by 1,000 miles of hostile Indian territory. The population of the country was vast, but its material resources very limited, the region having been kept much more backward than the rest of the subcontinent. To these political and historical factors was finally added nature's share. The Quaid-i-Azam died just a year after independence. Three years later his successor in leadership, Liaquat Ali Khan, fell to an assassin's bullet. Death of individuals do not make much difference in advanced and stable societies, but in a country like Pakistan, newly independent and newly created, the passing away of its founder was a great tragedy. It formed the turning point in national affairs.

While this leadership lasted, and the momentum of the independence struggle was still alive, Pakistan was able to face up to the pressure of problems that came with independence. This involved not only the setting up of a structure from the base in every sphere, but also the facing of the consequences of the above-noted events, chiefly the continuous flow of refugees, the conflict that soon developed in the State of Jammu and Kashmir, and the manifestation of Indian hostility in other ways.

The period from October 1951 to October 1958 forms a second phase in Pakistan's brief though eventful history. This was, in retrospect, a period of test: the test being how well the country could run in the face of mounting difficulties. The test came too early, and lasted too long, and it underlined clearly enough both the strength and the weaknesses which the country had inherited.

The chief weakness, it was shown, lay in the country having adopted a system of governance that was demonstrably unsuited to its conditions. Both at the centre of the stage, and in the wings, there was throughout this period a succession of bizarre sequences (described in some detail in chapter No. 3) that tended to make all the struggle and the effort of the earlier days look

in vain. The denouement was in no doubt. The strength of the country, on the other hand, lay in its people, in its ideology, and in the memory of the struggle of the one for the other. The only way to dissipate this strength, it seemed, was through complete forfeiture of popular confidence in the leadership and the system of government.

The Revolution of 1958, as we know, came with extreme reluctance, but when it did come, there could be no doubt about the job that had to be done. Looking back, the chief merit of the Revolution was not just that it stopped the rot of almost a decade, but that it came equipped to change, and change, where necessary, from the base. It sprang from within the society, and it owed allegiance to no extraneous ideology. As such it envisaged no break from the original national objectives or the basic principles of policy in respect of the main issues; on the contrary, it only sought to change the means of implementing these; to review the institutions and the systems involved. This by itself was no small task.

There are usually strong factors responsible for perpetuating weaknesses in individuals and institutions: an assumed sanctity about long-standing practices; inertia; lack of imagination to see the alternative; lack of courage to implement it if seen; and, of course, a vested interest in the *status quo*. In Pakistan almost all these factors had been at work in different combinations. Little original thinking was done on the widely ranging problems, and where it was done the vested interests were too strong, and those who were for change seemed to lack the courage to initiate new ideas.

When the Revolutionary Government took stock of the situation in the country, it saw that change was required almost in every field. Change, it saw, could be effected in various degrees, for example:

i) Change merely in the existing system;

ii) Development of a new system in place of the old;

iii) Creation of a system where none had existed;

iv) Gradual demolition of the existing system (in the field, for instance, of unhealthy social customs).

A major change came in the political system. At the very start, President Ayub had said that the Revolution was not directed against Democracy. He proceeded thereafter to show that it was in fact meant to preserve and promote Democracy—by making it take roots.

Democracy, as everyone knows, means rule of the people. Ever since the days of Athens and Sparta, there has nowhere been a direct government by the people. There has to be a government by the representatives of the people, not the people themselves. Government implies management of the affairs of the community and the nation, affairs touching on the daily life of individuals, and those concerning national and international aspects. Both are important, and neither is less vital than the other.

It was felt by the Revolutionary regime that the local affairs of the people should be managed locally by the representatives directly elected by the people. The country was easily divided into small homogeneous communities, and it was left to the people to elect persons from amongst those whom they knew and who could be trusted to look after the problems of the country. These elected representatives would form the Grand Assembly of the People of Pakistan which could serve as an Electoral College to return members to the National and Provincial Legislatures, apart from electing the President of the country.

The change from the parliamentary to the presidential system was based on long and distressing experience of the former pattern both at the centre and in the provinces. That system did not work anywhere in the world in the absence of large scale education, and developed political parties with a national outlook and programmes. Pakistan of pre-Revolution did not present a picture of such a party system.

The primary need of the country was to have a stable and responsible government. There were all the economic and social problems, of hunger and want, pressing for solution. Secondly, the unique phenomenon of the country divided into two parts made it imperative not only that there should be stability in government, but also that the centre, the unifying symbol, should have a strong regulatory and supervisory position with sufficient authority to coordinate and guide the units. This of course did no mean denying autonomy to the provinces in the affairs they could best manage themselves.

Such was the thinking that went into the concept of Basic Democracies, and the evolution of the 1962 Constitution. Both the Basic Democracies system and the Constitution have shown themselves open to judicious amendment in the light of experience. As to the basic principles, despite some criticism of them, nothing has been said so far to demolish the assumptions on which they stand. The Basic Democracies have been operating throughout the country since 1960, and the Constitution since the middle of 1962. The new activity everywhere visible in the rural areas, and the smoothness with which the business of governing is being run, are a vindication of the ideas on which the new system is based.

It is a curious phenomenon of our time that an assumed lack of political freedom generates greater heat than a real, self-evident and ubiquitous shortage of food, shelter and clothing. Yet, how free a people can be if they lack these necessities? Such a question is rarely asked.

Economic development has been of primary concern to the country. The present objectives are that basic amenities should become available to all, and as quickly as possible; secondly, that further progress should be speeded up through fuller utilisation of existing resources, and then further expansion of these resources; thirdly, the country should as far as possible, and to an increasing degree, depend on its own resources. The planning and executive machi-

nery of the state (as the economic chapters of this book will show) are concentrating on these objectives, and are achieving results. It is with these objectives in view that the Second Five-Year Plan was drawn up and implemented, and the Third is now more than one-third of the way through. The twenty-year Perspective Plan actually lays down the targets for 1985 as complete independdence from foreign assistance, provision of full employment, education and health facilities to all. With each year we are distinctly moving closer to the targets.

In his foreword to the Third Five-Year Plan, President Ayub made reference to the principles of economic policy of his government.

> "Our approach to economic planning has been pragmatic all along. It has been the constant endeavour of the government to mobilise the creative energies of the nation and all possible incentives for the stimulation of private initiative. The government has limited its own role to providing a suitable framework for the private sector and to the creation of those facilities which the private sector had neither the ability nor the willingness to develop. There have been no grand experimentts in nationalisation, no fancy slogans about socialism, no undue intervention in the private sector...."

The President, however, maintained that the ultimate aim of all efforts was the establishment of a 'welfare state' with the proviso that the cultural and religious heritage of the country should be preserved and developed. Equal opportunities to all rather than equal distribution of wealth, he said, was one of the goals, although it was also a firm policy of his government that concentration of wealth in a few hands should be prevented, and all vested interests that stood in the way of a progressive, dynamic society should be 'humanized'.

This humanization of institutions and professional groups as a step towards producing a progressive, dynamic society, has been one of the main concern of this regime. It was prominently reflected in the terms of reference of the commissions of experts set up for each of the major fields of national life. Whether directly or by implication each of these investigations was required to see if the prevailing system was equitable and in conformity with the requirement of the present-day needs. The main objective of the Land Reforms Commission, for instance, was to undo the feudalistic pattern by broadening the ownership of land and ensuring security of tenure for the tiller. The Food and Agriculture Commission was asked specifically to consider measures 'to provide cultivators with greater incentives and means to raise their output and income, including those pertaining to taxation, pricing, procurement policies and methods, subsidies, credits and marketing'. The existing legal system was considered 'most expensive, ineffective, dilatory, tyrannical and totally unsuited to our genius'. The Law Reforms Commission was accordingly required to examine the system thoroughly and see how it could be improved so as to make

justice available to the common man quickly and inexpensively and in a manner likely to inspire confidence. The Commission accordingly made recommendations for simplifying procedures so as to reduce delay, for consolidation of laws, reduction of court fees, setting up of low-level courts, and so on. Similarly, in the field of labour, a revised policy, announced in early 1959, aims among other things, at an equitable distribution of wealth, better working conditions for labour, and development of Trade Unionism founded upon the ILO Conventions.

The basic role in the process of humanization and progress is that of education. Education has to spread and on that depends the shape of the future society. A large body of trained and disciplined young people have to be continually produced for providing leadership in every sphere of life, at home and outdoors. More specifically, formal education in Pakistan has a two-fold objective: one, to train young people for manning the country's industries, business houses, government offices, educational and research institutions etc.; two, to broaden their minds in the process so as to make them enlightened, and appreciative of values and ideals. The system inherited from the past did not serve either of the purposes well. A complete reorientation has been necessary.

A beginning along the line was made with the setting up of the Education Commission and the Scientific Commission. Both these made commendable attempts in analysing the problems and suggesting the new course. Government has been pursuing their recommendations.

Provision of the basic means of education is no doubt primarily a responsibility of the state, which it fulfils to the extent that its resources permit. But intellectual pursuits, which provide a necessary impetus to the spread of education, and to the development of *good* education, are essentially a contribution made by individuals. In this respect, it must be admitted, Pakistan has not fared well. Good, inspiring teaching is rare; competent, authentic writing is also rare. The tendency here, as elsewhere, is to look up to the government, and even persons whose preoccupation it should be to do these things well expect separate official encouragement. As one of the results the government has recently had to set up a Central Board to supervise the writing and production of text books in important subjects for all classes.

Social change is a by-product of historical and environmental changes. The economic development of the recent past has had very clear echoes in the social life of the country. Industrialisation has brought its concentration of population with its problems, development and strengthening of trade unions, employment of women, and a growing emancipation from older ideas. Similarly, rising commercial activity has been having its effect. Especially the rise in banking and in credit facilities have helped in the growth of the middle class, and make it feel, with its bank account, an insurance policy, and perhaps a house built with a mortgage, a reinforced sense of citizenship and an interest in the

stability of the nation's economy and civic tranquility. Better communications is a third important factor in the shaping of social attitudes. In the growth of Basic Democracies, Rural Works Programme, electrification, and new development of facilities are having visible social effects. Indeed, a social revolution is under way in the rural areas.

Sometimes social change has to become the object of deliberate effort. Land Reforms and the Basic Democracies system have had social as well as economic intentions. Deliberate measures are more often needed to correct unhappy features which are easily accumulated. The objective of reform should not only be to shed the unhappy features, but where any of them did fulfil a need, to evolve new ones that suit the times. Present Pakistani society is riddled with customs that it would be much lighter and freer without. Many of them have sanctity imparted by time, or have assumed it because of some spurious association with religion. Some were useful, or at any rate understandable, in a different society, but are now clearly out of place and even harmful. Some of these have recently been tackled for the first time, with evident courage.

Family laws have made divorce and polygamy difficult. The far-reaching importance of this measure can be gauged only from an idea of the scale (quite large in the orthodox and low-income groups) on which these were practised, and the hardship they caused. An earlier government had envisaged the measure, but could not implement it. The present regime encountered great opposition from the orthodox section before the laws were promulgated and considerable criticism since then. These laws also rationalised a provision about inheritance (through a pre-deceased father) which had seemed unjust and inequitable.

A separate Commission examined the nature and origin of unhealthy social customs and practices prevalent in the society (such as wasteful ceremonies, beggary, gambling, prostitution, etc.) and analysed the factors responsible for their continuance. It recommended short-term measures to minimise the effects of these evils, and long-term ones for eradicating them completely.

However, no Commission of experts and no administrative flats can by themselves build up a clean progressive society. Such measures are in the nature of laying the ground, and groundwork is a singularly unspectacular business. What will eventually matter is how the people respond to these exertions. The success of these measures is directly proportionate to the co-operation they elicit from the people. Countries situated as is Pakistan are confronted with the problem of balancing aspiration with resources and the latter has the final say always.

After allowing for these considerations, the present state of the country in the twenty year perspective that this book presents should provide cause for satisfaction.

With all this present activity, what kind of an image does Pakistan pre-

sent to a foreign observer today? How others see us is always an educative speculation. In the matter of countries that are being watched, much of it is not speculation, it can be heard and read. The image in a word is that of a country worth watching; and one that must be heard whether when demanding better terms of trade for itself and like countries, or when it is giving its views on what is to be done in Rhodesia, in South West Africa, or concerning non-proliferation of nuclear weapons. The image formed abroad is that of purposeful stability and dynamism.

This image is only reinforced by Pakistan's conduct of its international relations. The country is pursuing a vigorous foreign policy which does not align her exclusively to one bloc, but is orientated towards peaceful and friendly relations with *all* countries on a bilateral basis. Along with Iran and Turkey, Pakistan set a pattern in regional co-operation through the formation of the RCD agreement in June 1964. By deliberate effort the country has established normal relations with its neighbours China, the Soviet Union, Afghanistan and Burma.

India remains the only neighbour, in fact almost the only country in the world, with which Pakistan has not found it possible to establish a working relationship. The basic reason from Pakistan's point of view is the Jammu and Kashmir dispute; from the Indian point of view, it is the creation, and now the existence, of Pakistan, itself. It is mainly because of the latter view that India has been so intransigent about Jammu and Kashmir, and it was because of it that, after threatening to do so for the prececding eighteen years, India did at last wage a full-scale war on this country in September '65. She was of course emboldened to do so by the massive arms aid she had received from the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union for fighting the Chinese. The recent decision by the United States to cease assistance by way of arms is another step not calculated to discourage further thoughts of a similar adventure by India. However, Pakistan will continue meanwhile to work for peace and prosperity at home and abroad, confident in her strength to defend herself as before, and confident that right must prevail.

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1. THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

THE PHYSICAL BACKGROUND.

Area and Position.

Physiography and Geology: Physical Features; Soils; Climate; Temperature; Rainfall; Humidity; Vegetation; Animal Life.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND.

Races; Religions; Languages; Dietary Habits; Other Characteristics; Social Change.

Population: Growth; Geographic Distribution; Urban/Rural Distribution; Distribution by Age and Sex; Literacy and Education; Religious Distribution; Population Control.

THE PHYSICAL BACKGROUND

The territory of Pakistan is made up of two non-contiguous parts, East Pakistan and West Pakistan, sometimes also called the Eastern Wing and Western Wing. In between are a thousand miles of Indian territory.

The area of Pakistan (excluding the disputed territories of Jammu and Kashmir and Junagadh and Manavadar, and also Gilgit and Baltistan) comes to about 365,529 square miles. The area of the more populous East Pakistan is 55,126 square miles and that of West Pakistan 310,403 square miles.

East Pakistan lies roughly between 20° 30′ and 26° 45′ N. Latitude and 88° and 92° 50′ E. Longitude. It is bounded by India on three sides, east, north and west. There is also a small boundary with Burma on the south-east. In the south lies the Bay of Bengal. To the north-east of the plain, almost on border, lies the broad mass of the Assam Range or the Shillong plateau. The Himalayas do not lie far from the boundary in the north-west. Tertiary folds which branch off from the Himalayas run to the south through southern Sylhet along the eastern border into Chittagong and Chittagong Hill Tracts and continue into Burma as Arakan Yomas.

West Pakistan extends from 23° 30′ to 36° 45′ N. Latitude and from about 61° to 75° 30′ E. Longitude. It also has its longest border with India, which lies on the east and south-east. On the north and north-west is Afghanistan, on the west, Iran, and in the south, the Arabian Sea. China has a common frontier with the Gilgit Agency and Baltistan. The USSR is separated from Pakistan by a narrow strip of Afghanistan territory called Wakhan: the nearest points of the two countries, Pakistan and the USSR, are only 10 to 12 miles away and the farthest points not more than 50 miles.

The location of the two wings of the country gives the latter an internationally important position. East Pakistan is connected with countries of south-east Asia, while West Pakistan is linked with countries in south-west Asia, central Asia and the Middle East.

Physiography and Geology

More than 85 per cent of the area of *East Pakistan* is flat alluvial plain traversed by innumerable rivers and streams and dotted with *jhils* or *bills* and marshes. The remarkable evenness of the plain can be judged from the fact that places as far as 100 miles from the sea are less than 30 feet above sea level and the slope is less than five inches in a mile. No part is higher than 100 feet.

The plain area consists of an enormous quantity of sand and silt deposited by the Padma (the Ganges)*, the Jamuna (Brahmaputra) and the Meghna, and their numerous tributaries and distributaries.

These rivers are an important part of the physical environment of East Pakistan and play a very significant role in the life of the people. They provide cheap means of transport and communication, serve as drainage channels, and ensure an abundant supply of fish, in addition to playing the important role of providing fertilising silt.

Within the general physiographical uniformity of the plain there is appreciable diversity.

A wide strip along the coast consists of a tidal plain with innumerable streams, running north and south in between large rivers, estuaries and creeks; criss-crossing each other, they form a maze of water channels having plenty of alluvial deposits, sands and clay.

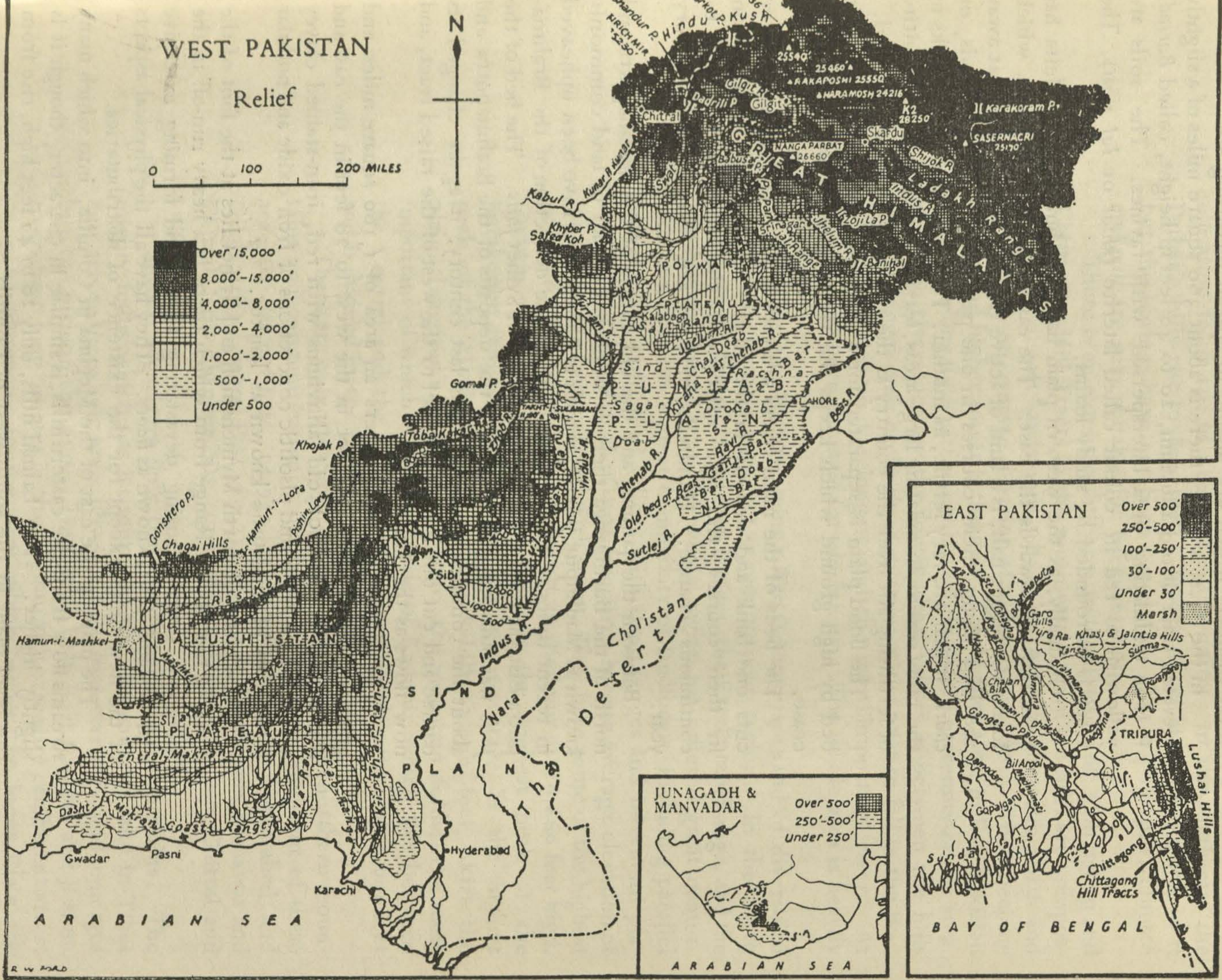
South of Madhumati lies the old delta, the coastal area of which is covered with forests known as Sundarbans. It is flooded by saline sea-water during the spring tides with a slight mixture of fresh water during the floods of the rainy season. The portion to the east of Madhumati which forms the front of the new delta is lower and has a much larger volume of fresh water.

North of the Sundarbans, beyond the range of tides, and west of the Jamuna-Madhumati line, the plain is higher and only partially inundated. It is characterised by decaying rivers. Its lower part, south of the Padma, consists mainly of the old or moribund delta, quite conspicuous for its dead or dying rivers. There is practically no deposit of silt through inundation. The old river beds and numerous shallow depressions are filled with water during the rains and form lakes called *jhils* or *bills*. These are being drained to form rich lands. The surface is generally undulating and the soils are mostly clayey loams.

The upper part north of the Padma is drained mainly by the Tista and the Atrai rivers, both of which are the tributaries of the Jamuna. The courses of the rivers in this region have undergone many changes: the diversion of the Tista from the Padma to the Jamuna-Brahmaputra in 1787 is a recent example. In the north the plain is flat while in the

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* In Pakistan the Ganges is known as the Padma.



Map reproduced from Kazi S. Ahmad, *A Geography of Pakistan*, Oxford University Press

south it is depressed with many areas of swamps and marshes, the largest of which is the *Chalan bill*. The decaying rivers are mostly local channels which are unable to spread fertilising silt.

In the west centre, there is about 360 square miles of a slightly elevated tract of old alluvium, 20 to 40 feet in height, called *Barind*. It is an undulating area interspersed with ravines. The soils are yellowish to red in colour called laterite (*khiar* or *lal mati*). The tract is surrounded by sandy loams.

Gradually, as the western plain has been built up, the delta has been shifting towards the east. The eastern part of the plain, which forms the bigger half, is a land of active rivers. These rivers eat away the land along their courses in one part, and build new lands, or *chars*, which are very fertile, in another. They overflow their banks in the rainy season, inundating large areas, leaving behind a large quantity of fertilising silt over the country as the waters recede into the bed.

The flood plain is separated for a few miles from the main river bed by high ground which keeps the river confined when the rains cease.

The beds of the main rivers are very wide. The running water cuts one bank and deposits on the other. On account of oscillation in their courses, the land adjacent to the rivers is subject to continuous change. Hundreds of acres are lost or gained every year.

Between the Jamuna and the old course of the Brahmaputra and north of the Burhiganga there is an elevated tract of land commonly known as Madhupur jungle, which is believed to have been upheaved in recent times. This upheaval caused the deflection of the Brahmaputra eastwards into the depressed area of Sylhet *jhils*. The bed of the *jhils* was subsequently raised by the deposits of the Brahmaputra and about the commencement of the last century, it again changed its course and cut out a new channel to the west of the raised tract, and now flows as the Jamuna.

The Madhupur tract covers an area of 1,100 square miles and gradually slopes from 100 feet in the west to 20 feet in the east and south. It consists of old alluviums with red, iron-stained clayey soil in which are found pisolitic concretions of iron oxide and nodular formations of limestone known as kanker.

The plain of north Mymensingh and Sylhet lies at the foot of the scarp of the Assam Range from which there is a heavy run-off in the monsoon season causing devastating floods and forming extensive marshes and *jhils*, known as *haors*. They have all the physical aspects of the new delta except for the existence of distributaries.

The plain to the east of the Meghna in Comilla, into which many streams flow from the eastern hills, is similar in character, though it is slightly higher. The Lalmai hills, only 20 to 40 feet high, rise from the level plain in the south-west of Comilla.

The coastal plain in the Noakhali and Chittagong districts is only about 5 to 6 miles wide and is crossed by several rivers from the

hills, of which Karnaphuli and Sangu are more important.

Low hills and hillocks border the plains in Sylhet, which range in elevation from 100 to 300 feet in the north. In the south-east the Patharia hills rise to 800 feet. Traces of oil have been found in it but the borings have not been successful. The topography, climate and soil are very suitable for tea plantation.

There is an extensive hill area in the districts of Chittagong and Chittagong Hill Tracts in the south-east. Here the hills are composed mainly of soft sandstones, shales and clays. They run north and south with an average elevation of about 2,000 feet. They become higher and higher towards the east. The highest peak in East Pakistan is Keokradong (4,034 feet) at the south-eastern extremity of the area.

The rivers occupy the longitudinal valleys in between the hills and the bigger ones break through them to the west to fall in the Bay. The Karnaphuli is the longest and the most important river. At Kaptai it has been dammed for electricity. The whole area is heavily forested.

Unlike the Eastern wing, *West Pakistan* is a land of diversified relief. Its western part is a mountainous region. In the north lie the newly folded Himalayan Ranges, the Karakoram Range, and the Hindukush beyond it. The whole region has suffered great contortion and presents a great complexity of landforms, including parallel ridges and longitudinal valleys with steep gorges and intermont plateaus. The Central or the Great Himalayas have an average elevation of 20,000 feet and are covered with snow. They have some of the highest peaks in the world. Nanga Parbat in Kashmir is 26,660 feet high, Godwin Austen (K2), 28,250 feet, is the highest peak of the Karakoram Range, while Tirich Mir, 25,363 feet, is the highest peak of the Hindukush. Low Siwalik hills, 3,000 feet, skirt the plain. Longitudinal valleys separate the mountain folds, the most important of which is the great vale of Kashmir which lies between the Central and the Outer Himalayas at an elevation of 6,000 feet and is drained by the Jhelum.

There are only a few high passes across these high northern mountains and communication is difficult. The more important of these are: (i) Babusar Pass, 14,931 feet, which connects Abbottabad and Gilgit; (ii) Lawarai Pass, 10,230 feet, which connects Peshawar and Chitral; (iii) Shandur Pass, 12,205 feet, which connects Chitral and Gilgit.

Several big rivers flow from this region into the plains. The mighty Indus which has its source in the Mansarowar lake in Tibet cuts across the whole area, flows into Pakistan territory, and emerges into the plain in the south. The Sutlej, Beas, Ravi, Chenab and Jhelum rivers have long courses in this region with extensive catchment areas.

The mountains in the west which border the Indus Plain are much lower than the Himalayas. They consist of sandstones and limestones alternating with shales, and show a simple structure. The hillsides are bare, devoid of soil and vegetation. When the

rain falls there is a sudden heavy run-off and destructive floods occasionally occur in the valleys which are otherwise usually dry. A striking feature is the frequency of the plains surrounded by hills.

Several rivers cut across the mountains to the east and their valleys make important passes. South of the Kabul lies the famous Khyber Pass which connects Peshawar with Kabul. The river Kurram lies to the south of the Safedkoh mountains. The Kurram Pass provides an easy route into Afghanistan. Between the Kurram and the Gomal rivers lies the Waziristan hill area. The Tochi (a tributary of the the Kurram) and the Gomal provide routes into south-east Afghanistan.

South of the Gomal, the Suleiman mountains run southward. Its main peak, Takht-i-Suleiman, is 11,100 feet high. At the south end of the Suleimans, the Bugti and Marri hills run from the south-east to the north-west. The Bolan is the main river of this region along the valley of which lies the famous Bolan Pass which connects Quetta with Sibi. Further south lie the hills on the border between Sind and Baluchistan.

The Baluchistan plateau is about 1,000 feet high. Dry hills run across it from the north-east to the south-west. A large area in the north-west is desert. The mountains in the north-east contain valuable deposits of coal, chromite and other minerals.

The Potwar plateau lies to the north of the Salt Range. Its height varies from 1,000 to 2,000 feet above sea level. The surface is greatly cut by deep ravines in the soft Siwalik beds of which the whole area is composed. Residual hills, troughs and basins are prominent features of the landscape. Many hillocks of glacial debris and erratic blocks are reminiscent of the Ice Age. This region has a geological structure very favourable for oil. All the oilfields found so far are located in it.

Bordering the plateau on the south lies the Salt Range. Like the Assam Range it provides a steep face to the south and it represents most of the great systems from cambrian to tertiary. A large quantity of rock salt and other minerals like gypsum and coal are found in it.

The Indus basin south of the Salt Range and the Himalayas forms a vast alluvial plain drained in its upper part by the Indus and its five tributaries, the Sutlej, the Beas, the Ravi, the Chenab and the Jhelum. They unite to form the *Panjnad* which in its turn joins the Indus near Mithankot. The rivers have carved out their valleys in the former deposits. The active flood plain of the river is called *khadar* or *bet*. The high banks of the rivers are frequently capped by wind-blown sand. In the interfluves or *doabs*, land gradually rises from the river banks till it culminates in central uplands which are called *bar*, consisting of old alluvium. These tracts which formerly formed desolate wastelands have mostly been converted into productive agricultural lands with the help of irrigation. In an otherwise generally level plain, old hills rise near Sargodha and Chiniot which are commonly known as Kirana Hills. The Delhi-Shahpur subterranean

ridge holds up the underground drainage above it, raises the water-table and contributes to waterlogging.

In the south-east of the plain lies the Thar desert which extends into Pakistan from India. It is covered with sand-dunes with salt lakes in the depressions. Similarly, three-fourths of the Thal between the Indus and the Jhelum is a desert or semi-desert which is being re-claimed by the construction of canals. Saline patches occur in various parts of the plain.

In the lower part of the plain below Mithankot the Indus slowly flows as a mighty river, several miles wide in the rainy season. Its bed has been raised up by the deposit of silt, and embankments or *bunds* have been constructed along it to protect the adjacent area from floods, which devastate large areas if any one of the *bunds* gives way. At several places the river flows across the out-liers of the limestone ridges which provide firm banks for the building of barrages. Below Thatta begins the delta, the uneven surface of which is marked by a net-work of flowing or abandoned rivers. The coastal strip which is flooded at high tide contains some mangrove swamps.

Adjoining the delta to the east is the Rann of Kutch. An old marine gulf now silted up, it consists of a marshy salt plain, scarcely above sea level. It is inundated with sea-water during the monsoon season.

Soils

The soils of the two wings of Pakistan are also quite different. Those of *West Pakistan* generally fall under the dry group called Pedo-cals, which have a high content of calcium carbonate and a low content of organic matter. Though these soils are characteristic of a land with low and erratic rainfall, great expansion of irrigation has made their extensive use possible. They are generally quite fertile.

While the soils of most of the plain consist of alluvium, old and new, those of the Thal, Thar and most of Baluchistan consist of wind-blown deposits known as loess or loss mixed with alluvium.

Soils of *East Pakistan* belong to the wet group called pedalfers. New alluvium is widely distributed in the plains, more so in the vici-nity of rivers. Old alluvium occurs in the higher tracts of Barind and Modhupur. The effect of leaching is to a great extent made up by the annual deposit of silt.

While soil erosion is a great menace in many parts of West Pakistan, as in the Potwar plateau, there is no trouble of similar type in East Pakistan on account of the fact that the ground is generally moist and plant cover plentiful.

Climate

East and *West Pakistan* between them provide a great range of climate, from the very wet tropical of south Chittagong to the most arid of the Kharan desert, and from some of the hottest in the world in the Jacobabad-Sibi area to the snowy cold of Ladakh and Baluchistan. While a tropical humid equable climate with plenty of rain and flood water is the keynote of the natural environment of East Pakistan,

a temperate dry continental climate with general paucity of rainfall is the principal feature of West Pakistan. The climates of the two wings are so complementary as to provide a great variety of crops and a well balanced agricultural economy.

Temperature

Temperature in *East Pakistan* is equable. The mean minimum temperatures vary from 49.6° F to 56.2° F in January and from 77.9° F to 78.9° F in July. The mean maximum temperatures vary from 75.4° F to 78.4° F in January and from 85.9° F to 89.2° F in July. April and May are usually the hottest months. The mean annual temperature varies between 57° F and 80° F. Thus East Pakistan is generally much warmer than West Pakistan in winter and it is also not as hot in summer.

There is a great variation in the mean monthly temperatures in *West Pakistan*. In the plains the mean minimum temperatures vary from about 40° F to 57° F in January and from about 79° F to 87° F in July. The mean maximum temperatures vary from 63° F to 78° F in January (the coldest month) and from 90° F to 114° F in June (the hottest month). In summer, Jacobabad-Sibi region has some of the highest temperatures in the world. The absolute maximum of 126° F has been recorded at Jacobabad. Over a large part of the country a mean daily maximum of 110° F or 112° F is common in the hottest months and 50° F to 65° F in the coldest months.

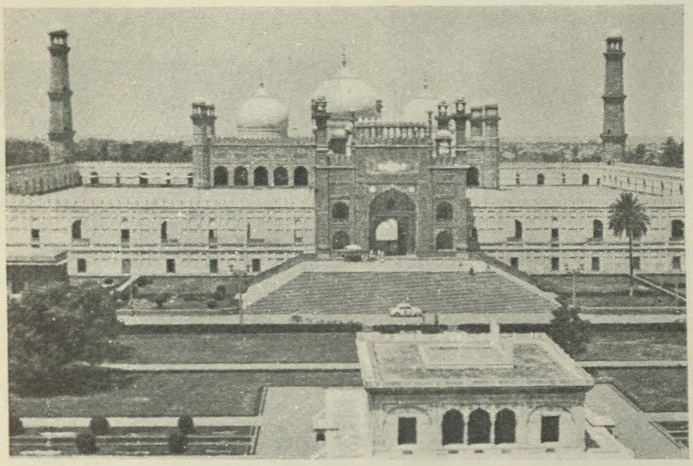
Rainfall

In *East Pakistan*, the annual rainfall varies from 50 inches in the west to 100 inches in the south-east and to 200 inches in sub-montane region of the Assam hills in the north. The lowest rainfall is 47.9 inches at Lalpur (Rajshahi) and the highest 225.76 inches at Lallakhel (Sylhet). More than two-thirds of this rainfall takes place in the months from June to September during the period of summer monsoon. The rainfall in each of these months ranges from 8 inches to 36 inches. These rains are associated with tropical cyclones. The storms which form in the Bay of Bengal in autumn prolong the rainy season into October and even November. December and January are the driest months when the winter monsoon blows from the land. The rainfall in any of these months is not more than 1.5 inches and is generally less than half an inch.

There is a short pre-monsoon rainy season from April to May due to thunder-storms or nor'-westers. The rainfall in each of these months varies from 2 inches to 15 inches. This is locally termed *chhota barsat* (small rainy season).

In East Pakistan the effect of high rainfall is further intensified by the inflow of enormous amount of water from the neighbouring lands.

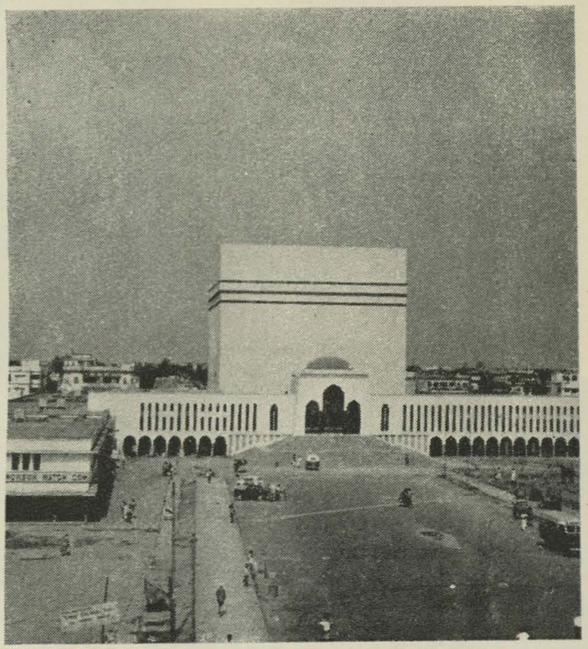
In *West Pakistan* there is a general deficiency of rainfall. In the plains it varies from 5 inches in upper Sind to 35 inches in the Himalayan sub-montane area. It takes place mostly in the late summer from the monsoons. Occasionally light rains follow the dust storms which take place in early summer. In Baluchistan the mean annual



1



2



3

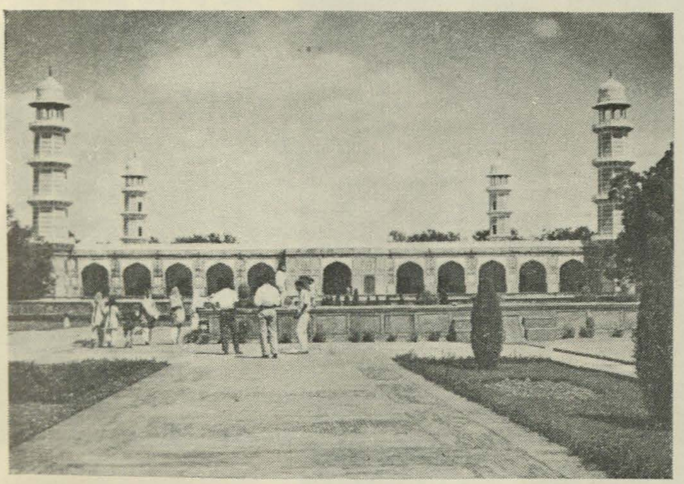
1 *View of the famous Badshahi Mosque at Lahore.*

2 *Fasting Buddha (National Museum).*

3 *Baitul-Mukarram Mosque, constructed recently at Dacca.*

4 *Mughal Emperor Jahangir's Tomb, Lahore.*

5 *King-Priest at Moenjodaro, seat of Indus Valley Civilization, West Pakistan.*



4



5



Mechanised farming: Tractor operation in a paddy field in East Pakistan.

Tea-picking is a job which women can do best. Here they are busy with their work in a tea garden in Sylhet.





Fight against nature's fury: Sirajganj Town Protection Embankment constructed by EPWAPDA to save the Sub-divisional town from erosion by the mighty river Brahmaputra.

rainfall is about 8 inches, diminishing to about 2 inches in the desert of Kharan. Only the southern flanks of the Himalayas have more than 50 inches. In the lee of these mountains the rainfall again decreases to about 6 inches in Gilgit and Baltistan. In the western hills and immediate forelying areas the rainfall varies from 10 to 30 inches, of which an appreciable amount is contributed by the western disturbances which visit these areas from mid-October till April. The disturbances also cause about 1.5 inches of rainfall in the plains.

A large portion of precipitation in the northern mountain region is in the form of snow which is an important element in the economy of this area. The water derived from melting snow in summer is of great use.

Humidity

The climate of the whole of *East Pakistan* may be called humid. Humidity is high practically throughout the year. No month has a humidity less than 70 per cent in any part while during the rainy season it is generally over 80 per cent.

In *West Pakistan* the low rainfall, practically cloudless skies and high temperatures considerably reduce the humidity of the region. Only in the coastal area round about Karachi is humidity high but it is confined to a narrow strip.

Vegetation

In sharp contrast to the vegetation in West Pakistan the flora of *East Pakistan* is very rich and green. As noted, the climate is mild: maximum temperature seldom goes above 90° F, and minimum is below 50° F. Rainfall during the summer months, from June to October, is heavy. The dry period is so short that it has little effect on preventing the growth of vegetation. The tropical moist climate, with high average temperature and good rainfall through the year, and fertile soil, all combine to produce a very luxuriant vegetation.

About 16 per cent of East Pakistan is forested. Due to the pressure of population many forests have been cut down.

There are three important areas of natural forests. The first is that of the tropical rain forest in the districts of Chittagong and Chittagong Hill Tracts. There are three storeys of plants: the upper storey with trees over 100 feet tall is followed by smaller trees forming the second storey, and finally are small herbaceous and shrubby plants. The trunks of most of the trees are covered with epiphytic orchids, mosses and ferns. Climbing plants are numerous. They grow rapidly and reach the top of the trees. One such common plant is the cane, *calamus*. Teak and garjan are important trees and there is plenty of bamboo for the manufacture of pulp and paper.

The second are the delta or tidal forests, usually known as the Sundarbans after sundri (*herittiera minor*) which is the main tree of this forest. Gewa (*excoeacaria agallocha*) is the next important tree. In the marshy places in this forest and at other places are mangrove

plants. They develop numerous upright roots by means of which they can take in air. In places, where the water is not very saline, some kind of palm is common.

Finally there is the Madhupur jungle which lies between the Meghna and the Jamuna. Here sal (*shorea robusta*), locally known as *garhgajari*, is the chief tree.

Some of the other well-known plants of East Pakistan are: different types of palms and bamboos, teak, mahogany, silk cotton tree (*salmalia malabaricum*), banana, magnolia and rhododendron.

In East Pakistan there are few areas of grassland. Where there are no forests or marshes practically the whole plain is cultivated. The chief grasslands are found in the area from north Comilla to south-west Sylhet and south-east Mymensingh, in Madhupur, Madhupur Tract and the upper reaches of Atrai and Tangan in the north-west.

Savannah are also found in all river areas. These are of two types, sun grass (*san kholas*) or thatch grass where trees are more or less absent and khagra (*saccharum spontaneum or narenger*) which is found along the bank of the larger rivers or swamps.

Except for the Himalayan southern slopes, *West Pakistan* has a low rainfall and the natural vegetation in the plains generally consists of tough, wiry grass or dry, stunted bushes with a sprinkling of trees in less dry areas. A large part of this wing is sandy waste and practically devoid of any vegetation. Only about 2.5 per cent of the province is forested.

In the plains there are large irrigated plantations in several areas, the more important of them are at Chhangamanga and Chichawatni in district Sahiwal (Montgomery), and Wan Bachran in the Thal area. Shisham (*dalbergia sirsco*) and mulberry are the two chief trees grown, the former good for furniture and the latter for sports goods.

Along the banks of big rivers, specially the lower Indus, there are riverain or *bela* forests. Shisham and babul (*acacia arabica*) are the two most important trees. The bark of the latter is used for tanning purposes. Groves of date-palms also occur. The coastal areas have mangrove type of forests which provide large quantities of fire-wood.

Peepal (*ficus religiosa*), jand, karil and farash trees are widely scattered over the plain. Shisham and kikar trees also line roads in many areas.

From Karachi to Lahore orchards of fruits like mangoes, guavas, bananas and citrus are found. Between Lahore and Sahiwal and also near Sargodha, there are extensive citrus plantations which extend for miles and during the early spring season the air is heavy with scent from citrus flowers. Most of this area is sandy and supports xerophytic vegetation.

In Baluchistan the vegetation is for the most part very xerophytic. There are large areas which are desert waste because of cold or paucity of rainfall. In the north-east where the rainfall is better and irrigation possible there are gardens of fruits like almonds, apples, apricots,

cherries, plums, pomegranates, grapes and melons.

In the northern mountains the vegetation varies with elevation and rainfall. In the foot-hill zone, below 300 feet, there are forests of *phulai*, *kao*, *chinar* and wild olive. Above 3,000 feet are found the ever-green forests with their soft wood valuable for building purposes. Deodar is an important tree. Deciduous hard-wood, broad-leaved trees like the oak, chestnut and walnut occur on warmer and rainier slopes. *Pinus roxburghii* (long leaved pine with three needles) appears in sheltered places at about 3,000 feet, sometimes coming down to 2,000 feet. It is the dominant tree upto about 5,000 feet and covers hillsides.

Between 5,000 and 6,000 feet temperate flora begins and *pinus wallichii* (blue pine with five needles) appears soon to replace the other pine. Also present in this transition zone is an evergreen oak, in which the leaves are elliptic in shape with spiny margins and white-ness below. A little higher up another oak, with leaves somewhat like the last species but green in surface, becomes common. Between 6,000 and 7,000 feet along with pines and oaks there are other trees like map-les, poplars, horse-chestnuts, ash, spruce, yew and firs. Above 7,000 feet the firs are the common trees, and at 8,000 and 9,000 feet they form pure stands. One of the most common climbers on trees is ivy. Almost the last tree to be found above 10,000 or 11,000 feet is the birch with white bark which peels off in large sheets and was once used for writing. Also present at these altitudes are dwarf willows and junipers.

In the drier inner valleys *pinus gerardiana* and wormwood (*arte-misia martitima*) grow. The first produces a delicious fruit, pine nut, while the second is the source of the drug, santonin.

Much of the area above 9,000 feet consists of alpine pastures. Dozens of different types of flowers grow in the alpine pastures of Swat and Kaghan Valley.

Botanically a very interesting area to the south of Skardu and East of Astore is the Deosai Plain in the Gilgit Agency. It is a high plateau, about 2,500 square miles and an average altitude of about 13,000 feet, surrounded by hills on all the sides. The whole area was under ice during the pleistocene period and so the flora is comparatively recent and has migrated from other areas. The region is under snow from November till July. Thus the plants have only 3 to 4 months to grow flower and seed. There are surprisingly large numbers of plants that have adapted themselves to this arctic climate. Species of *draba*, potentilla, *androsace* form compact cushions at higher alti-tudes and thus protect themselves against severe cold and dry winds. From a distance some of these cushion plants lock like rounded rocks.

Because of good rainfall and water supply practically the whole of the plain area in East Pakistan, barring the forests, is cultivated. There are less than 300,000 acres under grass there. Poor grasslands occur in the plains in West Pakistan where cultivation cannot be carried

on for want of water. A large part of Baluchistan, Thal and Thar is desert or semi-desert where the vegetation is poor grass, scrub or stunted bushes.

Animal Life

The *Eastern Wing* of the country, with dense tropical rain forest and innumerable muddy rivers, has a great variety and wealth of animal and insect life. There are reptiles and fishes which live in shallow waters and submerged plants. In the Sundarbans there are the Royal Bengal tigers, and the crocodile infested mangroves where six hourly tides compel the predator and the victim, the spotted deer, to stand within sight of each other. The pneumatophores there are exceedingly difficult to walk through.

Chittagong Hill tracts have wild elephants, leopards, swamp deer, sambhar, barking deer, muntjac, bison and bear. In Sylhet there is the greatest of the living species, the rhinoceros, but his blunt horns here do not seem to possess the legendary aphrodisiac properties of his African cousins.

In Cox's Bazar there are wild herds of elephants. The monkeys, the golden langoors, the gibbons, the intelligent Blyth's macaque and the Java monkeys abound in the forests. At night the small homely lizard emits loud noise in almost every house.

West Pakistan is not without its wealth of fish. The waters around Karachi are considered to be some of the best fishing grounds in the world. The record holding *Surmai* was hooked in 1962 about 15 miles from Karachi. The lobsters, prawns, cod, mackerel, whale-sharks, dolphins and other aquatic life exists in plenty. Skin-diving off Hawke's Bay takes one to a most colourful underwater world.

The north of the west wing of Pakistan abounds in wild life. There are the majestic marcopolo sheep, the fleet and wiry siberian ibex, the so-called snake-eating markhor with its screwed massive horns and flowing beard. Others in the region include urial, its closely resembling Tibetan wild cousin, the frisky goral, and the blue sheep or bharal. The rare and handsome snow leopard is often seen basking in the warm and comfortable early morning sun. There are, besides, the brown bear and the black Himalayan bear.

There is a varied coloured bird population. Over 100 main species of resident birds, many of them song-birds, are common. They include several varieties of pigeons, pheasants and other both well-known and rare species.

In the plains there are such birds and mammals as the crops can sustain. Both in quantity and quality the waters of Sind have the richest treasure of water-birds in Asia: the mallard, teal, shoveller, spot-bills, geese, pochards, wood duck, goosanders, smew, and others. Far out on the southern border are found desert gazelles and blue peacocks.

During nights leopards stalk the hillside. There are jackals,

foxes, wild cats, musk-cats, hyenas, porcupines, rodents and reptiles. One hunts the other in the darkness.

In the delta region crocodiles, gavial, harmless pythons, hog-deer and wild bears are encountered.

There are poisonous snakes, such as cobra, vipers and kraits, and non-poisonous snakes are usually found in the grass in search of field voles and mice. There are mighty pythons of other species. The monitor lizards are in plenty but they hunt during day. There are other lizards too but all are harmless irrespective of size and colouration.

THE DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

Races

The people of Pakistan are descended from several racial and sub-racial groups which invaded the sub-continent over the past five thousand years, mainly from central and western Asia. These included Dravidians, Aryans, Greeks, Persians, Afghans, Arabs and Moghals. Several among them settled down here. The result was a great intermixture of races.

The dominant racial type in Pakistan is the Indo-Aryan. There are Mongloid traces in the people of some eastern districts of East Pakistan and Dravidian traces in some of the people of the Kalat area in West Pakistan. The Baluchis and Pathans are predominantly an admixture of Turks and Iranians, two of the important branches of the Aryans.

Religions

A great majority of Pakistanis are Muslims; basically they have one way of life as well as one religion. From Sylhet in the east to Quetta in the far west nearly all of them worship God in the same way, believe the same teachings, obey the same code of conduct. This, combined with memories of a two-fold struggle for independence, one from foreign rule and the other from internal imperiousness of an overwhelming majority community, has created an overriding sense of oneness among them, which has transcended all minor diversities and physical non-contiguity.

There is a substantial non-Muslim (mainly Hindu) population also—almost equal to the total population of Netherlands, or of the neighbouring Afghanistan.

There are 9 million schedule caste and caste Hindus in East Pakistan which represent 10.7 per cent of the population. Christians constitute 1.4 per cent of the population in West Pakistan. There are about 370,000 Buddhists and about 5,000 Parsis.

They have all lived here for generations and are as much citizens of it as any other. They are in all respects—legally, economically and socially—the equals of the majority community. There is no bar against them. Every post, with the sole exception of that of the head of the State, is open to them. They are guaranteed 'the right to profess, practise and propagate their religions'.

The 1961 Census records the growth of various religions. About Christianity it says that it has grown fastest of all religions in Pakistan. Between 1901-1961 Christians increased by about 23 times and their proportion to the total increased by about ten times.

Languages

The main languages spoken in Pakistan are Bengali in East Pakistan (from Bengal, the name of the undivided, pre-independent province), and Punjabi, Baluchi, Sindhi, and Pushto in the areas of West Pakistan that were known, before integration into a single unit (October, 1955), as Punjab, Baluchistan, Sind and the region of Pathan people, the North West Frontier. All these languages belong to the Aryan group. One exception is the Brahui language spoken by a group of people in the Kalat area of West Pakistan. It is basically Dravidian in origin with an element of Persian and Arabic. Bengali derives from Prakrit, while West Pakistan languages lean heavily on Persian and Arabic. Baluchi, because of the area's geographical affinity to Iran, is more akin to Persian than any other language.

The refugees from India mostly speak Urdu only, which also serves as a *lingua franca* for West Pakistan. Indeed most people in Pakistan are bi-lingual, speaking their regional languages and Urdu.

English is still widely used for commercial, legal and other official transactions. There is quite a large number that has also had an early education in the classical languages, Persian and/or Arabic.

Dietary Habits

Dietary habits, as do other customs and characteristics, differ between linguistic groups. The people of East Pakistan are rice-eating and fish is an important part of their meal. In West Pakistan wheat is the staple food. The tall and sturdy Pathan of the north-west eats in addition rich mutton and luscious fruits in both of which his region abounds. The people of eastern and central region, well-built and active, have a predilection for milk and milk products. In the south, food differs from the neighbouring area chiefly in the way of cooking only. In the west the dietary habits are akin to those of the north-west.

Other Characteristics

Generally speaking the people of *West Pakistan* have good physique. They make excellent agriculturists and soldiers: the pre-independence armies of the sub-continent were composed largely of people from this region.

The Pathan of the north-west is known for his bravery, chivalry and freedom from fear. He had never reconciled himself to foreign domination, and continued an unequal struggle against the British who were never able to completely subdue him. Today, in an independent Pakistan, he is an equal partner with the rest in all peaceful pursuits, as well as being in the front ranks of the country's defence.

The inhabitant of the eastern and central region, with his practical outlook, makes a good administrator, scientific worker and agriculturist, and of course a good soldier. The Muslims in the southern

region had been kept backward by their Hindu compatriots in pre-independence days who monopolized trade, industry and education and had formed the bulk of the landowners in these parts. The Muslim here had mostly constituted unskilled labour and worked as tenants at will. Since independence the conditions have changed markedly for him and he is fully sharing in, as well as contributing to, the national progress. The Baluchis in the west, living in their vast expanses of deserts and cultivating the oases to yield them sustenance, have a large percentage of nomads among them, but those who have settled down, as they are increasingly doing, are industrious agriculturists.

The people of *East Pakistan*, living in a damp, wet, and warm climate, not subjected to the same extremes of heat and cold, are blessed with good health, and a highly poetic and sensitive nature. Normally peace-loving, they are capable of being roused into action, especially since there are among them descendants of Turkish and Afghan settlers, who have a martial tradition. The *jehad* movement led by Saiyed Ahmad Shahid against the Sikh Kingdom of Lahore in the 19th century attracted a fair number of recruits from Muslim Bengal. More recently, during Indian aggression on Pakistan, the East Pakistan Regiment and several East Pakistani officers individually gave a spirited account of themselves. The British had discouraged recruitment of Bengalis to their armies for political reasons, but now the people here are making this up.

The nearly ten million migrants from India have brought over some of their own habits and traditions, specially of polished refinement in speech and tastes. Settled mostly in the major urban areas of the country, but more specially in Karachi, Dacca and Lahore, they have taken to trade and crafts, teaching and public service.

Social Change

Pakistan is witnessing some of the most rapid changes occurring in contemporary times.

Something like 25 million rupees are being spent daily to give the present and future generations a better life and better environment. Nature's resources are being worked to the utmost, and human resources are being increasingly mobilised. Better seed, increased fertilisers, greater irrigation facilities, reform in the land tenure system and a rural works programme now the size of 300 million rupees annually, have made the teeming countryside of Pakistan more alive and active than ever before. The urban and suburban areas give signs of increasing industrial and commercial activity.

Such activity brings in wide-ranging social change, which has both its happy and some unhappy aspects, the former preponderating. Education is creating greater awareness; new activity and experiences are generating self-confidence and hopefulness.

POPULATION Growth

Pakistan's population in mid-1966 stood at 105,044,080. In 1970, as estimated, it will be 114,188,612. This places her in a group with Japan and Indonesia, the world's most populous countries after

China, India, the USSR and the USA.

Since independence, two censuses have been taken, one in 1951 and the other in 1961. According to these the total population of the country was as follows.

TABLE 1
POPULATION CENSUS

Millions

	Pakistan		East Pakistan		West Pakistan	
	1951	1961	1951	1961	1951	1961
Total	75.8	93.7	42.0	50.8	33.8	42.9
Male	40.2	49.3	22.0	26.3	18.2	23.0
Female	35.6	44.4	20.0	24.5	15.6	19.9

Source : *Census 1961*

The net rate of population growth depends upon the relative behaviour of three factors: birth rate, death rate and migration. In a developing country such as Pakistan, where both fertility and mortality levels are very high and chances of large scale emigration remote, population growth will be influenced mainly by trends in birth and death rates only. The decade 1941-51 has been exceptional on account of large movements following the independence of the subcontinent.

TABLE 2
RATE OF GROWTH DURING PRECEDING DECADES

Decade	Percentage increase		
	Total	Rural	Urban
1901-1911	11.9	8.8	8.5
1911-1921	6.7	6.2	16.1
1921-1931	8.8	7.5	32.1
1931-1941	18.8	17.0	44.1
1941-1951	7.9	5.0	41.9
1951-1961	23.6	19.8	56.4

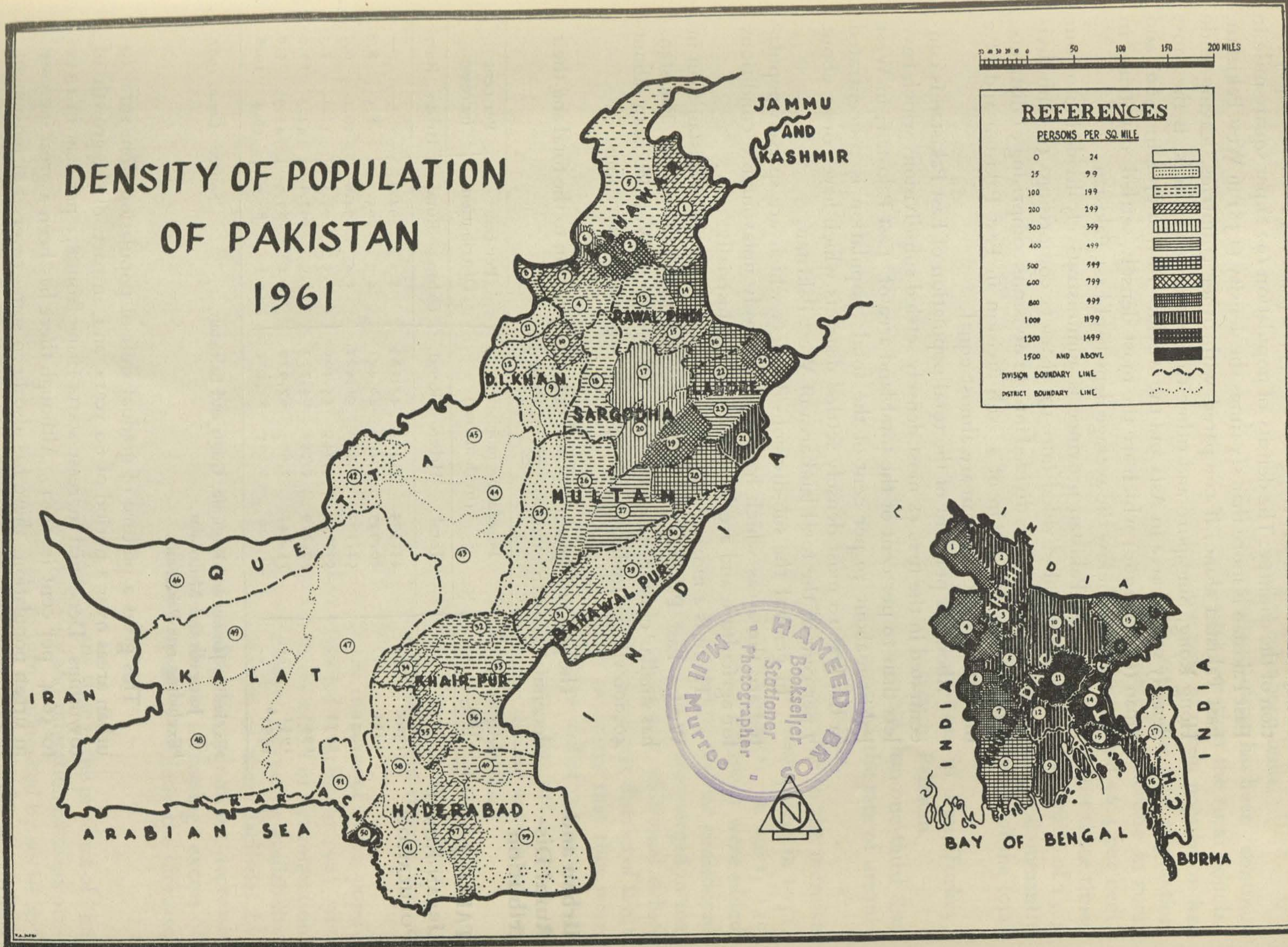
Source : *Census 1961*

As popularisation of birth control will take time, the birth rate in Pakistan is expected to remain almost constant for some time. The death rate is, however, on the decline owing to improving health facilities. Consequently, the population will increase at an accelerated pace for a considerable time to come. There is reason to believe that the present estimated rate of population increase of 2.8 per cent per annum will soon approach 3.0 per cent per annum and may even exceed this figure before long. This means that the next census in 1971 may reveal a cumulative increase of nearly 35 per cent over 1961.

Geographic Distribution

The area of Pakistan (365,529 square miles) comprises 3.5 per cent of the land area of Asia, but in 1961 it contained 5.5 per cent population of the continent and had a density 1½ time higher than the average density of Asia: 256 against 163 persons per square mile.

The area of East Pakistan comprises 15.1 per cent of the land area



Figures in circles indicate districts, for the names of which see list on page 34.

of Pakistan but in 1961 it contained 54.2 per cent of the total population of the country. The density of population (922) per square mile in East Pakistan is more than six times the density (138) in West Pakistan. East Pakistan alone, if compared with other countries, leaving aside Hong Kong, Singapore and other tiny islands and places, is the most densely settled area in Asia and the world. Taiwan (764 in 1960) and Japan (657 in 1960) which are the most densely settled countries in Asia are much below the average density of East Pakistan.

The East Pakistan province is administratively divided into four divisions and sub-divided into 17 districts comprising 59 sub-divisions. West Pakistan is divided into 12 divisions comprising 51 districts. The average population of a sub-division in East Pakistan and of a district in West Pakistan are almost equal.

About 28 per cent of the total population of East Pakistan is concentrated in the first 18 most densely settled sub-divisions which have less than 20 per cent of the total land area of East Pakistan; in West Pakistan about 39 per cent of the total population is concentrated in the first 10 most densely settled districts which have only about 7 per cent of the total land area of West Pakistan.

In general the sub-divisions/districts which are sparsely populated are the areas which have comparatively unfavourable conditions for agriculture and are less developed industrially.

There is a more even settlement pattern in East Pakistan than in West. East Pakistan, which is less urbanised than West Pakistan, has smaller clusters (about 60,000 villages) than West Pakistan (about 40,000 villages) which tends to have larger agglomerations.

Urban and Rural Distribution

The percentage of rural and urban population to the total and their decennial growth rates are given below:

TABLE 3
URBAN-RURAL POPULATION

Census Year	Population number[a] (in thousand)			Per cent Distribution		Per cent Increase	
	Total	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
1901 ..	45,504	2,321	43,183	5.1	94.9	—	—
1911 ..	50,937	2,496	48,441	4.9	95.1	8.5	8.8
1921 ..	54,363	2,936	51,427	5.4	94.6	16.1	6.2
1931 ..	59,146	3,845	55,301	6.5	93.5	32.1	7.5
1941 ..	70,279	5,552	64,727	7.9	92.1	44.1	17.0
1951 ..	75,842	7,863	67,979	10.4	89.6	41.9	5.0
1961[b] ..	93,720	12,295	81,425	13.1	86.9	56.4	19.8

[a]Excluding Jammu and Kashmir, Gilgit and Baltistan, Junagadh and Manavadar.
[b]Excluding non-Pakistanis.

Source: *Census 1961*

This gives a picture of gradual shift of population from rural to urban areas over a period of 60 years, and, in part, of the growth of townships. Decennial increase starts rising from 8.5 per cent in 1911 to 56.4 per cent in 1961. Although there has been a great increase in urban population, there has also been some reversal of movement

to rural areas where mills and factories have been built.

Urban population of the areas forming Pakistan has been continuously growing since 1911 at a much faster rate than the rural population. During the decade 1951-1961 the ratio of urban population has increased from 10.4 per cent to 13.1 per cent. The total population during this period increased by 23.6 per cent but increase in rural population was 19.8 per cent and in urban population 56.4 per cent. In other words, the urban population grew at a rate almost three times faster than the rural population. Although the 1961 urban ratio of 13.1 per cent is the highest ever, the country continues to be predominantly rural and the urban population is still only a small portion of the total population.

It may be noted that the urban population in Iran, Turkey, Japan and the Philippines is growing faster than in Pakistan.

The urban population of East Pakistan is less than one-third that of West Pakistan. Even during the decade 1951-61 the rate of urbanisation in East Pakistan was less than in West Pakistan.

The increase in the urban population is also due to the increase in the number of urban places. There were 282 urban places in 1951, whereas the 1961 census reported 391 such places. In 1961, 130 new places (18 in East Pakistan and 112 in West Pakistan) were added to the urban category. These were either non-existent or considered rural in the 1951 census. Out of 130 places, 20 were merged in the existing urban areas and 110 became independent additional urban areas. There were also three urban places in Bahawalpur district of West Pakistan which lost their population to such an extent that they were classified as rural for the 1961 census. More than half of 130 new urban places had populations less than 5,000 in 1961. The net increase in population through these changes during the decade accounted for 26.5 per cent of the total growth of the urban population.

Slightly less than half of the urban population of the country in 1961 was living in cities having a population of 100,000 and above. In East Pakistan less than half and in West Pakistan about three-fifths of urban population was living in such cities.

Although more than 25 per cent of the increase of urban population is due to addition of new areas classified as urban in 1961, yet almost 75 per cent of the growth is due to the effect of net migration (from rural to urban) and reproductive change. Increasing availability of health facilities and growing consciousness of these facilities by urban population have resulted in a gradual but significant decrease of the death rate in urban areas. The constantly increasing excess of birth rate over death rate has played a significant role in the increase of urban population of Pakistan.

Distribution by Age and Sex

The age structure of a population at any time is the product of the continuous operation of fertility, mortality and migration patterns prevalent in the past. These factors are, in turn, influenced by social and economic conditions. During the past two decades, the area which

now forms Pakistan has passed through different stages of social and economic development. The movement of population between India and Pakistan consequent on independence has also influenced the sex and age distribution.

Overall, there are 49.3 million men and 44.4 million women in Pakistan according to the 1961 census, and the male predominate in every age group. A great disparity occurs in the 10 to 14 group (4,708,000 against 3,747,000), the difference being almost of one million; and in the marriageable age group of 15 to 39 where the number of males is over a million more than females (16,593,000 against 15,452,000). The survival age shows even greater difference: men of 50 and above number 5,860,000 while women number 4,592,000.

Province-wise, the difference between males and females in East Pakistan is 1,800,000 (26,300,000 against 24,500,000) while in West Pakistan it is 3,100,000 (21,168,000 against 18,274,000). However, the rate of growth during the period 1951-61 was greater for females in both East and West Pakistan. In West Pakistan it was 27.8 per cent for females against 26.5 per cent for males; in East Pakistan it was 22.5 against 20.1.

The age group of 5-9 years has the highest percentage of the population, namely 14.8. The next is 0-4 year group with a percentage of 14.6. In other words 29.2 per cent of Pakistan's population is below 10 years of age.

The average proportion of children under 10 years for all urban areas was 30.7 per cent (Karachi 29.8 per cent, Rawalpindi 38.8 per cent, Chittagong 25.9 per cent, Lahore and Dacca 31.0 and 30.2 per cent respectively).

The age group accounting for new entrants to the labour force and for a substantial number of marriages, i.e. 10-24 group, varied little as between the big cities in its relative size in the total population. Most of the cities have 31-32 per cent of their population in this age group. If these age groups are compared with the 1951 census, the increase in 0-4 years is from 14.6 to 18.2 per cent in East Pakistan and from 13.7 to 16.4 per cent in West Pakistan.

The proportion of children aged 5-9 years as revealed by the 1961 census (18.8 per cent in East Pakistan and 16.4 per cent in West Pakistan) is unparalleled elsewhere in Asia or in the world, and has increased more than the proportion of children aged 0-4 years over the decade.

The comparative percentage of children under ten in some countries is as follows: Pakistan 35, Malaysia 33, Thailand 31, Turkey 29, Iran 27, U.S.A. 22, England and Wales 15.

A challenging feature of the age distribution of Pakistan's population is the very large proportion at the bottom. This, coupled with a continuing high birth rate, is creating a mounting strain on the much-too-limited schooling facilities, and will in the coming years make the task of providing productive employment much bigger than at present.

Pakistan's work force is carrying a greater burden of dependency than any other Asian country, and as between the two provinces, East Pakistan has a higher dependency ratio than West Pakistan.

Literacy and Education

Progress of literacy in Pakistan between 1951-1961 cannot be portrayed clearly because the term was defined differently in the two censuses. In the 1961 census, a person was considered to be literate if he could read with understanding a short statement on every-day life in any of the languages; inability to write a statement did not exclude him from being literate. In the 1951 census a person was considered literate if he could read in clear print in any language. The condition of understanding was absent, with the result that even those who could read the Holy Quran without comprehension were included as literates. The coverage of the 1951 census for literates was, therefore, wider than that of the 1961 census.

The total literate population in Pakistan in 1961 was 14,335,809, which works out to be only 15.9 per cent. East Pakistan had a higher percentage of literacy (17.6 per cent) with 8,955,501 literates, as compared to West Pakistan having literacy of 13.6 per cent with 5,380,308 literates. The proportion of literates in the total population was higher in the urban areas (30.2 per cent) than in the rural areas (13.6 per cent). In general, the relatively lower percentage of literacy in rural areas may be attributed to:

(a) less educational facilities;
(b) migration of literates from rural to urban areas;
(c) more opportunities of work for children on farms, thus reducing utilisation of schooling facilities.

A substantial proportion of literates (14.1 per cent in Pakistan, 16.2 per cent in East Pakistan and 10.7 per cent in West Pakistan) was without formal education and a very high proportion of literates (57.4 per cent in Pakistan, 63.5 per cent in East Pakistan and 47.1 per cent in West Pakistan) had only completed grade V or less. Only a small proportion of literates (7.0 per cent in Pakistan, 3.8 per cent in East Pakistan and 12.4 per cent in West Pakistan) had completed high school or higher education.

The total female literates were less than one-third of the total male literates in Pakistan. This disparity is more prominent in West Pakistan than in East Pakistan, the respective percentages being 26 and 31. Disparity between the males and females increased further at higher levels of education.

One tendency in education was a big drop-out of students at the primary and secondary level of education. This trend was most conspicuous in large numbers in the first grade, declining slowly with the higher grades. For example, the total enrolment in the primary schools (grade I to V) was 3,056,895 in 1950. If these children had stayed in school they should have passed their matriculation examination during 1955-56 to 1959-60. According to the matriculation results, the total number of passed condidates during the period was

326,542 which shows that out of 100 children who entered primary school only 11 passed their matriculation. The total drop-out of 89 per cent is a serious limitation on educational progress.

Religious Distribution

Pakistan's population can be divided into four main religious groups: Muslims, Caste Hindus, Scheduled Castes and Christians. The remainder consists of three smaller groups, *viz*, of Buddhists, Parsis and tribal people, some of the last having no identifiable religion. Population according to religion in the two censuses is given in the following table.

TABLE 4
POPULATION ACCORDING TO RELIGION

Thousands

Religious Groups	1951 census			1961 census		
	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Total	75,635	41,932	33,703	93,720	50,840	42,880
Muslims	64,959	32,227	32,732	82,556	40,890	41,666
Hindus	9,770	9,239	531	10,002	9,380	622
Christians	540	107	433	733	149	584
Others	366	359	7	49	421	8

Source : *Census 1961*

POPULATION CONTROL

At nearly 3 per cent per annum, Pakistan now has one of the world's highest population growth rates. With better health facilities, net additions to population have been progressively rising. Projections have been made of population in different years upto 1985, based on several assumptions, as follows:

(i) Mortality decline, normal;
Fertility, constant.

(ii) Mortality decline, normal;
Fertility decline, 1 per cent per year from 1965.

(iii) Mortality decline, normal;
Fertility decline, 1 per cent per year from 1965, and 2 per cent from 1975.

(iv) Mortality decline, rapid;
Fertility, constant.

(v) Mortality decline, rapid;
Fertility decline, 1 per cent per year from 1965.

(vi) Mortality decline, rapid;
Fertility decline, 1 per cent per year from 1965, and 2 per cent from 1975.

TABLE 5
POPULATION PROJECTIONS ON DIFFERENT ASSUMPTIONS

Thousands

Assumption	1970	1975	1985
First	117,763	136,409	188,013
Second	116,804	133,096	173,666
Third	116,804	131,901	164,627
Fourth	118,589	138,778	194,395
Fifth	117,608	135,368	179,230
Sixth	117,608	134,136	169,917

Source : *Central Statistical Office*

While rapid mortality decline is an essential objective of welfare programme, it is realised that fertility decline is vital also to economic development and people's betterment. The sixth assumption, where there is increasing fertility decline as well as rapid mortality decline, has therefore to become operative.

The First Five-Year Plan for national development (1955-60) began with a modest programme of Rs. 500,000 for making family planning popular. The Second Plan raised the amount to Rs. 30½ million, and set up a government machinery at the centre and provinces to implement the scheme. Family Planning Boards, a national research institute of family planning, and five training-cum-research institutes in the provinces were set up. About 1,500 medical and para-medical personnel were trained in the techniques. Some 3,308 clinics opened during the period had attended 1.4 million people.

The Third Five-Year Plan (1965-70) has raised the financial size of the programme by more than nine times over the Second Plan. It aims at preventing 5 to 6 million births by reducing the rate from 50 to 40 per thousand. During the current plan period it is expected to induce all the 20 million fertile couples to practise family planning in one form or the other. Priority is being given to areas with greater density of population. (See also chapter on Family Planning.)

DENSITY OF POPULATION 1961

(*See map on page* 17)

	Persons per sq. mile.
EAST PAKISTAN	**922**
Rajshahi Division	888
1. Dinajpur	655
2. Rangpur	1,025
3. Bogra	1,048
4. Rajshahi	769
5. Pabna	1,044
Khulna Division	786
6. Kushtia	851
7. Jessore	860
8. Khulna	526
9. Barisal	1,005
Dacca Division	1,281
10. Mymensingh	1,103
11. Dacca	1,768
12. Faridpur	1,180
Chittagong Division	800
13. Sylhet	729
14. Comilla	1,693
15. Noakhali	1,285
16. Chittagong	1,103
17. Chittagong Hill Tracts	76

	Persons per sq. mile.
WEST PAKISTAN	**138**
Peshawar Division	226
1. Hazara	220
2. Mardan	672
3. Peshawar	737
4. Kohat	181
5. Malakand Agency	124
6. Mohmand Agency	332
7. Khyber Agency	303
8. Kurram Agency	154
Dera Ismail Khan Division	108
9. Dera Ismail Khan	81
10. Bannu	210
11. North Waziristan	88
12. South Waziristan	92
Rawalpindi Division	355
13. Campbellpur	179
14. Rawalpindi	558
15. Jhelum	271
16. Gujrat	586
Sargodha Division	350
17. Sargodha	307
18. Mianwali	138
19. Lyallpur	764
20. Jhang	317
Lahore Division	724
21. Lahore	1,119
22. Gujranwala	559
23. Sheikhupura	467
24. Sialkot	772
Multan Division	266
25. Dera Ghazi Khan	83
26. Muzaffargarh	276
27. Multan	480
28. Sahiwal	505
Bahawalpur Division	147
29. Bahawalpur	77
30. Bahawalnagar	240
31. Rahimyar Khan	226
Khairpur Division	154
32. Jacobabad	177
33. Sukkur	79
34. Larkana	210
35. Nawabshah	239
36. Khairpur	78
Hyderabad Division	89
37. Hyderabad	286
38. Dadu	66
39. Tharparkar	54
40. Sanghar	104
41. Thatta	47
Quetta Division	12
42. Quetta-Pishin	50
43. Sibi	12
44. Loralai	15
45. Zhob	8
46. Chagai	2
Kalat Division	7
47. Kalat	11
48. Mekran	6
49. Kharan	2
Federal Territory, Karachi	254
50. Karachi	1,434
51. Lasbela	13

2. HISTORY

PAKISTAN TERRITORIES

Indus Valley Civilisation; The Aryans; The Achaemenian Rule; Alexander; The Mauryan Rulers; The Bactrian Greeks; The Scythians and Parthians; The Kushans; The Sassanians, Huns, and Hindus; Buddhism; The Muslims; The British Advent.

PAKISTAN MOVEMENT: GENESIS AND THE STRUGGLE

introductory.

Background. Muslims as Rulers; Hinduism; Social and Economic conditions under the British; Consequences of 1857 uprising.

Muslim Awakening. Sir Syed; Partition of Bengal and Hindu Extremism; Muslim Demand for Constitutional Safeguards; Formation of Muslim League.

Hindu-Muslim Co-operation. Annulment of Bengal Partition; Imperialism over Turkey; Jinnah's Entry into Muslim League; League-Congress Pact; Montagu-Chelmsford Reform; Rowlatt Act; *Satyagraha and Suppression;* Jallianwala Bagh Tragedy; Allies' Treatment of Turkey; Non-Co-operation Movement.

The Break-up. Break-up of League-Congress Amity; Constitutional Proposals; Nehru Committee Report; Jinnah's Fourteen Points; Round Table Conference; Government of *India* Act, 1935; General Election 1937; Congress's Ministry-Making; The Congress Rule in Provinces.

Demand for Pakistan. Cripps Mission; Congress's Quit India Movement; The C.R. Formula; Liaquat-Desai Pact; Wavell Plan; General Election 1946; Reaffirmation of Pakistan Demand; Cabinet Mission: *Congress Rejection; Muslim League Reaction;* Interim Government; Constituent Assembly; Announcement of British Withdrawal; Mountbatten; Mountbatten Plan; Menon's Plan; The Final Settlement; Mountbatten and Pakistan; Independence.

PAKISTAN TERRITORIES

Although Pakistan as a nation-state dates only from August 1947, and the nation itself can trace its beginnings only to a few centuries ago, the territories of Pakistan are heir to one of the most ancient civilisations of the Orient, known as the Indus Valley Civilisation, which dates from 5,000 years back. These territories have been the home of a virile people who have made and unmade history by their strong war-like traditions and love of freedom; they were great conquerors, and built vast empires. Both wings of Pakistan control the routes and overlook the seas which have carried inter-continental commerce and trade; and which, because of their strategic

position, have played a key role in the development of the history of South Asia.

The Indus Valley Civilisation

The civilisation that flourished on the economy of the Indus system 5,000 years ago was the oldest of the Bronze age.

The two excavated cities of this civilisation, Moenjodaro in the Larkana District and Harappa in Sahiwal District (West Pakistan) give evidence of advanced industrial and business traditions of the time. These cities were no haphazard growth; on the contrary they were built with surprising regard to considerations not only of security but also of hygiene and orderliness. They also indicate a developed sense of town planning and decoration.

The unity of the civilisation is revealed by a uniform system of weights and measures, common traditions in art and craft, similar social objectives and ideals, religious beliefs and rituals, and a system of pictographic writing with perhaps one common language. There are numerous other distinguishing features of that civilisation.

Then also, the irrigated plains of Sind and the Punjab were intensively cultivated, yielding a surplus of food and cotton, and sustaining large towns and villages that flourished along the riverside. The Indus was the high channel of communication, with boats plying long distances, while wheeled carriages carted the goods to the river points.

There are indications that this civilisation made deep penetration into what then were darker regions of the subcontinent. Outwards, it had a direct link overland as well as by seas with ancient Iran and Mesopotamia. Men and merchandise flowed in and out through the caravan routes across Baluchistan and kept up a steady exchange of knowledge between these regions.

The Aryans

The Indus civilisation had developed in the main Indus Valley, that is in the plains stretching eastwards from the western mountain barrier and the high table land adjacent to it. It is now known to have influenced the life in the hilly areas west of River Jhelum and north of River Gomal. Here there were many hilly pockets, capable of supporting life based on tribal economy. The people who lived here perhaps contemporaneously with this civilisation called themselves Aryans. They were a congeries of fighting tribes who frequently assailed the people on the plains for the occupation of the plains. Eventually they succeeded in routing the latter and occupied the plains. To their new homeland, the area now comprising West Pakistan, they gave the name *Saptasindhu* (Land of the Seven Rivers).

Gradually the nomadic habits of the Aryans blended with the requirements of the more stable occupations of the plains and there developed new features of civilisation. Their tribal life and traditions are preserved to this day in the region which is now the home of the Pathans: their love of freedom and heroism is alive, finding full echo

in the folk songs and melodies of West Pakistan.

An adventurous people like these could not long stay at one place, and they soon pushed eastwards. There, in the *Bharatvarsha* as they called it (roughly the present day India), they built up a new civilisation around the pre-existing traditions of caste and holiness of the Ganges.

The Achaemenian Rule

Recorded history begins in the middle of the sixth century B.C. when the whole of the Indus region gradually became part of Iran's Achaemenian empire, under Cyrus, Darius and Xerxes.

A notable feature of this period was that it consolidated the separate identity of the Indus zone from *Bharatvarsha*, while, on the other hand, it developed close relations between West Pakistan and Iran. Cultural traditions of Mesopotamia also travelled here *via* Iran. Thus the Persian conquest, for the first time, brought the sub-continent into a wide contact with the Western world, especially with the peoples of the Levant.

In the economic field a new system of weights and measures based on the Persian *karsha* and *daric* became current; coin currency was introduced for the first time. In literature, an alphabetic writing, called *kharoshthi*, derived from the north Sematic system, was evolved: new ideas were absorbed that led to the rise of the famous education centre at Taxila near Rawalpindi. In art and architecture, the Achaemenian school introduced the technique of stone-cutting and engineering that led to the finest production in stone sculpture in subsequent period. The administrative pattern of the time became a model for later emperors.

The Achaemenian's was also a popular rule. The people fought shoulder to shoulder with them in several wars in the West, including the last battle with Alexander.

Alexander

Alexander's entry into West Pakistan was brief, but triumphant, and left lasting impressions. He crossed the Hindu Kush in 327 B.C., and the Indus river the following year. He went as far as River Beas, in triumph, and returned.

The Macedonian empire in the Indus Valley perished within a short time, but it carried forward the work of the Achaemenians in welding this area into a unit and preparing the ground for a more permanent unity later on. Alexander took care to 'set little bits of Hellas down' where he went. The banks of Indus also absorbed many Hellenistic traditions and laid the foundation of a closer contact between West Pakistan and the Hellenic world.

The Mauryan Rulers

The remnants of Greek power in West Pakistan, after Alexander had quit, were overthrown by a Taxila-trained prince, Chandragupta Maurya. Later, with forces recruited from the hilly parts of this country, he invaded Bharatvarsha, ousted the ruling Nanda dynasty, and laid the foundation of Mauryan empire. Thus the Indus people marched forward politically and militarily to build the first great

empire that stretched from the Himalayas in the north to the Deccan peninsula in the south.

There are many evidences to show that throughout this period the people of West Pakistan maintained their distinguishing characteristics of life.

Bactrian Greeks

Soon West Pakistan cut adrift again, and re-established its link with a movement from Central Asia. It was the Bactrian Greeks this time who, in the middle of the third century B.C., moved southwards from Iran and Central Asia into West Pakistan and made Gandhar their new home. Here they built two capitals, at Taxila, east of the Indus, and at Pushkalavati, the modern Peshawar, west of Indus. The Bactrian King Menander built a vast empire spreading from Bactria in the north to the sea in the south, and his mighty military force swept the whole of north India upto Patna in the east.

Although they encouraged the Greek language and introduced some Greek features, the Bactrian kings also patronized local language, arts, craft and other traditions.

Scythians and Parthians

The Greek rule of West Pakistan was inherited by the Scythians and Parthians. The former pushed eastwards right upto the Jamuna and established themselves at Mathura. From Sind they advanced towards Gujerat, where they built up a maritime kingdom which lasted until the beginning of the fifteenth century A.D.

Kushans

The Kushans came from the borders of China and founded a mighty empire, with capital at Peshawar. Their greatest king, Kanishka, was able to penetrate eastwards through India right upto East Pakistan, in the north upto Samarkand, Bokhara and Tashkent, and in the west upto the Caspian sea. He controlled the main trade routes running from China and India to the western world and diverted the commerce through West Pakistan down the Arabian sea to the west. The trade brought rich profits, and the period became one of the most prosperous in early history.

The economic prosperity led to flourishing of arts. The renowned Gandhara school of sculpture belongs to this period.

The Kushan empire dwindled after the third century A.D., but their long and prosperous rule left many marks on the culture of Pakistan. It was also during this period that Buddhist missionaries from West Pakistan penetrated through the Sinkiang route into the heart of Central Asia.

Sassanians, Huns and Hindus

The Kushans yielded their power to the Sassanians of Iran. Under them cultural relations between Iran and Pakistan again became close. Baluchistan and Sind regions, lying adjacent to Iran, especially benefited during this period.

The White Huns soon displaced the Sassanians and laid the foundation of a new kingdom in West Pakistan with the capital at

Peshawar. The Gupta empire, then established in the Ganges valley, was shattered by the Hun king Toramana but later his son lost control over the latter possessions. The Huns inherited the tradition of Kushans and built up a mighty empire.

The Hun rulers had a long rule until their Brahmin minister, Kalla, usurped the throne, and inaugurated the Hindu shahi rule in the northern part of West Pakistan.

Similarly in Sind, another Brahmin replaced the Shudra (probably Buddhist) dynasty.

Buddhism

While in the earlier period Buddhism was allowed to flourish and even patronized in West Pakistan, during the Brahmin rule, long before the coming of the Muslims, Buddhism was greatly weakened.

In East Pakistan, however, Buddhism not only flourished for a long time but gained power under the Buddhist dynasties of the Devas, Chandras and Palas. These rulers succeeded in building up a new socio-religious force on the *tantric* form of Buddhism, and infused a sense of unity among the major non-Aryan populace in the deltaic land of Bengal.

This region asserted its independence of the rest of the subcontinent, and even as early as the beginning of the seventh century, had advanced westwards to profit by the contemporary confusion in the Ganges valley. However, it was later, in the late eighth century A.D., that, under the Palas, the eastern empire in Assam, Bengal and Behar was consolidated and political influence exerted over the whole of the northern India.

The Palas were great patrons of art, culture and learning. During their time close diplomatic, political and cultural relations were developed between East Pakistan and the countries of South-East Asia. There were for instance cultural exchanges with the Buddhist kings of Arakan and with Buddhist centres of Burma; regular traffic of traders and missionaries was maintained on the northern side with Nepal and Tibet.

Thus, at the time when Buddhism had been ousted from other parts of the subcontinent by the Hindus, it was a great uniting force among the eastern peoples. The Buddhist rulers of Bengal built up a new culture in the region, and also extended their influence over the monsoonic regions of South-East Asia.

Buddhism introduced to the subcontinent a mass culture and a new moral force; and from here it spread its influence outwards. The Brahmanic Hinduism, which replaced Buddhism in West Pakistan in the sixth century, and in East Pakistan in the twelfth century, was a resistance against the latter, representing caste divisions and a hierarchy of privileges. Under its esoteric influence the subcontinent headed back towards isolation from the rest of the world, and there was then little traffic of ideas and knowledge either way.

The Muslims

The Arab invasion of Sind in 712 A.D. announced the advent of

Islam in the subcontinent. Henceforth the Arabs were to dominate the Arabian Sea and control eastern commerce, with Sind made a permanent emporium of international goods. Sind became a great centre of attraction not only for the Arab merchants but also for Arab scholars, historians and geographers.

From the mouth of the Indus, the Arabs advanced upwards and spread their culture right upto Multan. The Arab merchants also proceeded eastwards by sea and reached the head of the Bay of Bengal. The traditional history of Arakan also relates how in the ninth century A.D. the Arakan ruler received some shipwrecked Arab merchants and, pleased to hear about their new religion, made them settle in the Chittagong coastal region. Since then the Arabs maintained their contact not only with West Pakistan but also with Bengal coast.

There was another route of Arab advance into West Pakistan, the one earlier followed by the Scythians and Parthians. From Seistan in Iran they marched onwards towards Kandahar and further upto Ghazni, and then through the Kurram valley upto Bannu and Multan.

Muslim conquests in the region began with the foundation of a Turkish Amirate at Ghazni in the tenth century A.D. The Afghans accepted Islam and swelled the army of Mahmud of Ghazni. Mahmud's army scored victory after victory over the Hindu shahi ruler of Gandhara who retreated into India where Mahmud carried his conquests further.

Mahmud's lasting contribution lies in unifying the whole of the Indus zone and consolidating the base of Muslim kingdom here. The area became a permanent home of the Muslims, and a base for further advances into India. The economic strength of Mahmud's empire lay on the Indus system; his military strength on the Turks, Pathans, Khaljis and Muslims of the Indus to whom he had given a new sense of unity.

Mahmud's successors held fast to the Indus zone and built up the forerunner of a Muslim state in West Pakistan. From humble origins the city of Lahore rose to be the capital of this kingdom and to embody the new spirit and the new way of life that came with the Ghazni conquest.

In the twelfth century A.D. the state in West Pakistan was reorganised under the leadership of Shahabuddin Ghauri, who came from Ghaur in the western region of Afghanistan. The Hindu kings of the Ganges valley were also assailed and the vast Indian plain conquered.

Soon Qutubuddin Aibek laid the foundation of the Delhi Sultanate. The Muslims spread from the Indus in the West to the Padma in East Pakistan. The Sultanate stood the test of time and warded of the danger of Mongol onslaughts.

Thus the Turks, Khaljis and Afghans ruled in succession from Delhi and spread the benefits of Muslim culture throughout the subcontinent. The isolation of the subcontinent that started with the Hindu rule was broken and a continuous movement of people between here and the heart of Asia restarted.

In 1526 began another, long and glorious chapter in the Muslim rule over the subcontinent. The year marked the Mughal advent from the fertile plains of Central Asia—rich in artistic and cultural traditions—who stayed on to rule in Delhi for over two centuries, uniting the whole of the subcontinent as it was never united before. They integrated the populace as best could be, and organised and regulated life in all its departments. They left a form and a name and a precedent for everything, as their successors, the British, discovered after them. Social system and social reforms were developed. The Mughal court became a centre of culture, elegance and vigour which created its effect throughout the subcontinent. The state in their time was no longer a revenue-collecting, punishment-administering institution, but it became a mellow authority concerned to a considerable degree with the welfare of the people.

British Advent

The Portuguese were the first Europeans to find a sea-route to the subcontinent. They came twenty-eight years before the beginning of the Mughal rule and made their base in the east. They were followed by the English, who defeated them and began by setting up a factory at Surat, followed by settlements at the coastal points of Madras, Bombay and Calcutta.

Seeing the central power of the Mughals declining and the provincial vice-regents of the Emperor in disarray, the British (who were organised as a company of peaceful traders) became ambitious. Through various combinations of intrigue, force, and adroitness they began acquiring control of the provinces. Two main hurdles were the Bengal of Siraj-ud-Daula in the north-east, and the Mysore of Hyder Ali and Tipu Sultan in the south. The first fell at the middle of the 18th century and the second at the end. With that the British supremacy was established.

The first attempt by the Muslims to regain power from the aliens was made half a century later. The uprising of 1857, given currency as the 'sepoy mutiny', was far from an organised campaign. It was undertaken in sheer anger and desperation, almost in the mood of a people who had nothing but their chains to lose. This was not so however, for the chains put on the Muslims, the erstwhile rulers, by the British who took their place, although heavy enough before the uprising, were made much more so after it.

PAKISTAN MOVEMENT: GENESIS AND THE STRUGGLE

The establishment of Pakistan in 1947 vindicated the claim of the Muslims of this subcontinent that they were not a mere religious minority but constituted a nation in their own right.

The elemental force of nationalism that developed in reaction to the British domination and under the impact of modern political ideas did not unify the people of the subcontinent, but, on the contrary, brought about the realisation of their separate nationhoods. It did act

as a strong cohesive and impelling force on them, but not as one but as two different peoples. Looking back it became clear that although living together for centuries, they had never integrated enough to constitute a single nation; while on the other hand, separately, each of the two groups had all the vital features of making a nation by itself. Thus, the movement for the creation of Pakistan was based squarely on the modern concept of nationalism, applied in full historical perspective.

On the political plane, the Muslims of this subcontinent did not start with the idea of a separate state for themselves. As the events show, throughout the last quarter of the nineteenth and the first forty years of the present century the Muslim leaders did their best to make a common cause with the Hindus, and to discover in the latter a willingness to accommodate. It was only when they were completely disappointed, and saw repeatedly that the Hindus could not be depended upon for sympathy and accommodation on equal terms, but the contrary, that they decided that a separate nation as they were, they had to have a separate homeland also.

BACKGROUND

Muslims as Rulers

During the last long stretch of Muslim rule over the subcontinent there had been some distance between the upper class Muslims and the non-Muslims. The reason mainly was that a ruling minority, no less than an oppressed and persecuted one, is apt to develop exclusiveness, especially when greatly outnumbered by a constantly hostile majority. However, this exclusiveness of the Muslim rulers was a far cry from that of their British successors who never did settle down in the country and remained mere birds of passage. In the upper strata of Muslim society there was also for some time consciousness of their Arab, Central Asian or Iranian origins, but the way of life of the Muslims in general had become in many respects *Indianised*.*

Hinduism

The chasm dividing Muslims and Hindus was, however, not the Muslim consciousness of their political or racial supremacy, or their religious identity. The first were temporary factors that had already been wearing off. As for religion, Islam, a proselytising faith, lays emphasis on the brotherhood and equality of all believers regardless of race, colour or nationality. The dividing force was Hinduism. Hinduism, a non-proselytising religion with a rigid caste system, forbids intermingling of even Hindus belonging to different castes, not to speak of Hindus and non-Hindus. Orthodox Hindus always regarded foreigners, Muslims among them, as *mlechchas*, or unclean people, whose very touch polluted them. Thus the very religion and

*Since the pre-independence *India* and post-independence India are two different geographical and political entities, the distinction has been made in this chapter and elsewhere to refer to the former as the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent, or merely as the subcontinent. Where the subcontinent has to be referred to as *India*, as here, or in quotations from that period, the word has been italicised, now a common practice after O.H.K. Spate.

social system of Hindus bred an exclusiveness which was the more formidable having the sanction of religion and tradition. The Hindus and Muslims, despite constant contact with each other over centuries, which produced some glorious cultural off-shoots, essentially remained separate and distinct on a conscious level.

Social and Economic Conditions under the British

The British rule drove the two communities further apart because of their uneven development in economic, educational and social spheres during this period.

For Hindus in general, the transition to British rule only meant a change of masters. Psychologically it was easier for them to adjust themselves to new circumstances. They bore no stigma of disloyalty and were relatively more dependable in the eyes of the new rulers. Unlike Muslims, they could switch over to English and new learning with comparative ease. It presented no great emotional problem. Moreover, the British commercial and political supremacy was established in the Presidency towns of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras —places where Hindus were in a majority and which were far removed from the Muslim regions or from areas where Muslim culture was dominant. These predominantly Hindu areas were, thus, the first to have felt the full impact of the industrial West and to have been moved into a world of business and commerce. The 19th century witnessed in Bengal a burgeoning of social, religious, political and cultural movements which constituted what is known as the Bengal Renaissance.

In sharp contrast to this was the plight of the Muslims. Firstly, the loss of authority was accompanied by a catastrophic economic dislocation. The British had wrested authority from Muslims and, as the new rulers, regarded the latter with distrust. Muslims were removed from high civil and military posts and were dispossessed of lands they owned. The artisans and craftsmen were put out of business as a result of the British East *India* Company's policy of suppressing their trade to augment the sale of British manufactured goods. The replacement of Persian by English as the official language of the subcontinent was another serious blow to Muslims, and made it impossible for them to secure even minor jobs under the new administration.

Secondly, the advent of British rule filled the Muslims with consternation and remorse. It was difficult for them to reconcile themselves to the loss of political power they had exercised for so long. Prisoners of their glorious past, they did not realise for long afterwards that the times had changed and required drastic readjustments, nor did they cease to look upon the last feeble and inconsequential Mughal Emperors as powerful symbols of great empire.

Uprising of 1857

In the year 1857, even this shadowy empire came to a formal and final end. In that year the *Indian* troops rose against their British masters, and so did the people of some parts as though by pre-arranged signal, to throw off the alien yoke. However, this noble and brave

attempt failed. The technological superiority of the aliens triumphed and the uprising was brutally suppressed.

The consequences of this heroic but unsuccessful revolt, for the subcontinent in general and for the Muslims in particular, were immeasurably great. 1857 is, therefore, regarded as a watershed in the history of the subcontinent and of Muslims in particular.

The abolition of the East *India* Company and the direct assumption of government of the country by the British sovereign started a new chapter. Queen Victoria in her Proclamation of 1858 expressed 'our earnest desire' to administer *India's* government 'for the benefit of *all* our subjects resident therein' (italics added). Her *Muslim* subjects, however, failed to get a fair deal from her government. The British held the Muslims chiefly responsible for the uprising and singled them out for ruthless persecution. They became the chief victims of British vengeance. Eminent Englishmen later admitted that the retribution meted out to Muslims was quite out of proportion to their real offence.

During the decade following 1857, the Muslims, stigmatised with disloyalty and constantly harassed, grew sulky and withdrew into a shell. They developed a sullen resentment against the alien rule, alien culture and alien language and education. Western learning, some of them also argued, was inferior to Islamic learning and was even likely to corrupt their morals and subvert their religion and culture.

Way behind Hindus in the field of new education, this line of thought was extremely unfortunate. This and the discriminatory policy of the British against them were leading them towards disaster when two factors came to their rescue.

MUSLIM AWAKENING

In the 1870's, as a result of the pleadings of such men as Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, a section of influential Englishmen realised the insanity of the British policy of suppressingMuslims and urged the Government to treat its Muslim subjects more fairly. In 1871 a senior civil servant, William Hunter, commissioned by the Viceroy, Lord Mayo, to investigate the Muslim problem and suggest remedies, wrote an important book, *Our Indian Muslims: Are they Bound in Conscience to Rebel against the Queen?* The book, despite its imperialistic approach, considered the Muslim problem with sympathy and insight. After portraying the heartbreaking decline of Muslims in political, social and economic spheres, the author made a moving plea to the Government to remove that 'chronic sense of wrong which has grown up in the hearts of the Mussalmans under British rule'.

Sir Syed

Just before this change in British opinion, there started a more important change, among the Muslims themselves. A section of them began to realise that the attitude of their community towards the new order and new education must change if it was to survive. Far and away the most eminent representative of this trend was Sir Syed Ahmad Khan (1817-98) whose towering figure dominated Muslim *India* in the second half of the 19th century. A philosopher and scholar,

a religious and social reformer, a crusader in the cause of modern education, and later the foremost exponent of Muslim nationhood, Sir Syed's thought and action played a decisive role in shaping the future of Muslims as a nation. Indeed the idea of Pakistan could be traced back to Sir Syed who was the first to emphasise that Hindus and Muslims were two nations, distinct and separate, and their interests were completely divergent.

Sir Syed's first task after 1857 was to rehabilitate Muslims by bringing about a rapprochement between them and the British rulers. To accomplish this, he had to fight the prejudices deeply ingrained in both the communities against each other.

As a sincere friend of the British, he first drew their attention to the various grievances of the people which had caused the revolt. In a remarkable book, *The Causes of Indian Revolt*, written in 1860, when much of the country was still under martial law, he enumerated with rare courage and candour the ills of British rule. Although written from a 'nationalist'* point of view, the book was painfully aware that the Muslim community was the chief victim of the British policy of discrimination and repression. The author 'could not bear to see the condition in which they were at that time'. "Believe me this grief has aged me and my hair has turned grey."

The book had a deep influence on official thinking, which now began to favour a policy of reform in place of repression, and William Hunter's assignment just noted was a step in this direction. Even A.O. Hume, the founder of the Congress Party, admitted that it was the influence of this book 'which led me to think of establishing an organisation like the Indian National Congress'.

Then Sir Syed started a magazine, the *Loyal Mohammadans of India*, and through it energetically fought the British tendency to look upon Muslims as a people whose loyalty to Government was essentially suspect. In religion, he tried to inculcate a rational approach, and to achieve a synthesis between reason and faith. Natural sciences, he argued, only revealed the working of God's creation and they should not be treated as ungodly. He also brought out forcefully the common points between Islam and Christianity to facilitate the much-needed rapprochement between the British and the Muslims. Through his writings and speeches, especially through his novel magazine, *Tahzhib-ul-Akhlaq* (The Social Reformer), he preached the virtues of simple living and high thinking and also advocated the acceptance of what was good in the European way of life.

Undaunted by fierce opposition from his orthodox co-religionists,

*The word 'nationalist' had a special meaning in the political vocabulary of the time. It described people or opinions that treated Hindus and Muslims as a single nation as against those who made distinction between them for political and economic solution of problems. Later the term came to be applied to the Muslims who sympathised with the Congress instead of the Muslim League Party. The suggestion was that those who underlined Muslim interests were not thinking in 'national' terms.

he pursued the promotion of modern education among his Muslim brethren with dogged determination. Through speeches, articles and translations, and learned societies, he built up a powerful campaign in favour of Western education. Supported by a band of devoted, faithful and intellectually eminent followers, Sir Syed's incessant efforts in this sphere were crowned with success. In 1875 the Mohammadan Anglo-Oriental College was founded at Aligarh which became the cradle of Muslim renaissance and, later, as the only Muslim University in the subcontinent, it became the radiating centre of Muslim nationalism.

In politics, Sir Syed started off as a staunch 'nationalist'. He had described Hindus and Muslims as the two eyes of that beautiful bride, *India*. In his book, *The Causes of Indian Revolt*, he advocated the inclusion of *Indians* in the upper councils of government. He even asked Muslims to give up cow slaughter for the sake of Hindu-Muslim unity. Soon, however, he realised that the two eyes of the bride did not shine with equal lustre. The Hindus could not be trusted to protect and safeguard Muslim interests, as was demonstrated, among other things, by the campaign started by them in the 1880's to replace Urdu with Hindi, and by the publication and acclaim of the violently anti-Muslim novel *Anand Math* by Bankim Chandra Chatterjee. Any introduction of Western type of representative system would, Sir Syed said, only result in a perpetual rule of the Hindu majority over the Muslim minority. Muslims were also much too backward educationally and economically to compete with Hindus for government jobs and other purposes. For these reasons he opposed the participation of Muslims in the political activities of the Indian National Congress, which had been founded in 1885 by a retired English official, A.O. Hume, with the blessings of the then Governor-General, Lord Dufferin. About the Congress demand for the introduction of Western style of democratic institutions, Sir Syed said: "It will be like a game of dice in which one man had four dice and the other only one." With remarkable foresight he anticipated the popular feelings of more than half a century later when he declared in 1887 that in the event of British withdrawal Hindus and Muslims would not be able to share power on an equal footing.

Sir Syed died in 1898. His ideas had their shortcomings, but in the extremely difficult circumstances of the time, they best suited the Muslim interests. He is, therefore, rightly regarded as the saviour of the Muslims of this subcontinent. It was aptly said of him: "Other men have written books and founded colleges, but to arrest as with a wall the degeneration of a whole people, that is the work of a prophet."

Partition of Bengal and Hindu Extremism

Towards the end of the nineteenth century, Hindus, under men like Tilak, were becoming more and more assertive in their communalism. Soon an event of importance catapulted them into political extremism. This was the partition of Bengal by Lord Curzon in 1905—which had a threefold importance in the political history of

the subcontinent. It engendered extremism among Hindus and the *Indian* National Congress; it deepened Muslim fears of Hindu domination and led them to demand constitutional safeguards mainly in the shape of separate electorate, and to establish a political organisation of their own—The All *India* Muslim League; and, later, the annulment of the partition disillusioned Muslims about constitutional methods and alienated them from the Government.

The reasons for the partition of Bengal were mainly administrative. The Presidency with an area of some 200,000 square miles and a population of nearly 80 million, was obviously too unwieldy and large for efficient administration. The province of Assam was, on the other hand, too small. Indeed, partition was not a new idea; it had been discussed for more than twenty years.

However the partition came at a moment when Hindu nationalism in the subcontinent, and particularly in Bengal, was running high. When, in October 1905, the scheme became effective, creating a new province of East Bengal and Assam where the Muslims would be in a majority, the measure touched off a tremendous movement of protest among Hindus. The Government was accused of favouring Muslims because they were more loyal and politically quiescent. It was also accused, on the other hand, of weakening 'national solidarity'. A new militancy was added to Hindu nationalism. A *swadeshi* movement, urging a boycott of British goods, led to communal clashes, for the Muslims refused to support it. Terroristic activities, including political murders, also changed the character of the political struggle, and caused deep chagrin to the moderate and the constitutional wings, as well as consternation among Muslims as a whole.

Muslim Demand for Constitutional Safeguards

The extraordinary vehemence of the agitation persuaded the Muslims of the need for constitutional safeguards. The *Indian* Councils Act of 1892 had introduced the elective principle in a small measure and now further constitutional reforms aiming at an extension of this principle were imminent. In October 1906, a deputation of leading Muslims presented to the Viceroy at Simla a plan for 'separate electorate' and 'weightage' in elected bodies. They argued that if Muslims were elected jointly by Hindu and Muslim voters, they will not be true representatives of their country. They would be too much dependent on the votes of the Hindu majority. Similarly the Muslims should be given 'weightage' in the elected bodies and the number of their representatives should be more than the size of their population, for, they were still big land-owners and formed a very large proportion of the *Indian* army. These demands were accepted by the Government and were incorporated into the *Indian* Councils Act of 1909, familiarly known as Morley-Minto Reforms. The Reforms had a deep influence on the course and character of the subcontinent's politics. By giving recognition to the deep social and political cleavage between the two major communities they not only saved Muslims from being swamped by the Hindu majority but also promoted among them a strong feeling of

separate nationhood, which later culminated in the creation of Pakistan.

Formation of Muslim League

The Muslims then decided to form a political organisation of their own. They realised that to eschew politics when Hindus had raised a great political storm would be extremely detrimental to their interests. The Congress had on the whole failed to attract Muslims, and Hindu militancy had resulted in a state of communal tension. Concerted political action by the Muslims to safeguard their interests was clearly indicated.

On 30th December, 1906, the Muslim leaders founded the All India Muslim League, the party destined to lead the victorious struggle for Pakistan. The venue of this historic event was Dacca—appositely so, because it was the capital of the new and predominantly Muslim province of Eastern Bengal.

The objectives of the Muslim League, as originally defined, were: "(a) To promote among the Musalmans of *India* feelings of loyalty to the British Government; (b) To protect and advance the political rights and interests of the Mussalmans of *India*, and respectfully to represent their needs and aspirations to Government; and (c) To prevent the rise among Mussalmans of *India* any feelings of hostility towards other communities...." Soon the Muslim League emerged as the sword-arm of *Indian* Muslims in their political battle, which later changed its objectives to attainment of self-rule for the sub-continent and then a separate state for the Muslims.

HINDU-MUSLIM CO-OPERATION

During the period immediately following Morley-Minto Reforms, events took a new and dramatic turn which alienated Muslims from the British and consequently brought Hindus and Muslims closer to each other than ever before.

Annulment of Partition

In the first place the partition of Bengal was suddenly annulled in December, 1911. Oddly enough, this was done at a moment when the anti-partition movement seemed to have spent its force. The Muslims felt badly let down. They could no longer trust the Government to safeguard and protect their interests. More important, the annulment of partition as a result of violent Hindu demand brutally demonstrated to the Muslims the futility of quiet loyalty and, by the same token, the efficacy of political agitation and even of mob violence.

Imperialism over Turkey

Soon developments in a far-off theatre caused a greater ferment among them. There had always been strong pan-Islamic tendencies among the Muslims of the subcontinent. Having themselves been deprived of political power, they looked with pride on independent Muslim states. They had, therefore, viewed with great anxiety the reduction of Afghanistan to subservience to the British, and the partition of Iran into British and Russian spheres of influence through the Anglo-Russian convention of 1907. Only the Ottoman Empire,

whose Sultan was also the Caliph, the spiritual head, of all Muslims, retained a semblance of independence. The fate of Turkey was, therefore, a matter of great concern to *Indian* Muslims. In an age of stark imperialism, Turkey's weakness could not escape the unwelcome attention of predatory imperialist powers. In 1911 Italy invaded Tripoli, the last of the Turkish dominions in Africa, and occupied it the following year. Turkey had to relinquish Tripoli without offering further resistance when she was also attacked by the powers of the Balkan League. The First Balkan War resulted in Turkey's defeat and humiliation. She lost all her European possessions west of the "Enes-Midia" line drawn across Thrace. All this aroused great resentment among the Muslims of the subcontinent. They raised funds to send a medical mission to Turkey. Muslim intellectuals and poets like Shibli and Iqbal gave powerful and vivid expression to the Muslim anguish. Muslim periodicals like Maulana Abul Kalam Azad's *Al-Hilal*, Maulana Mohammad Ali's *Comrade* and *Hamdard*, and Maulana Zafar Ali Khan's *Zamindar* wrote very critically of Western imperialism. A powerful feeling grew among Muslims that Western, especially British, imperialism was bent upon destroying Muslim power and culture.

Jinnah's Entry into Muslim Politics

In March 1913, the Muslim League revised its constitution and included in its objectives 'the attainment under the aegis of the British Crown, of a system of self-government suitable to *India*'. This led to the exit from the Muslim League of men like the Aga Khan and Ameer Ali who resigned in alarm. But the League gained the services of Mahomed Ali Jinnah, the future architect of Pakistan, at the moment a staunch 'nationalist'—so staunch indeed that he joined the Muslim League on a very clear understanding that 'loyalty to the Muslim League and the Muslim interest would in no way and at no time imply even the shadow of disloyalty to the larger national cause to which his life was dedicated'.

League-Congress Pact

About this time Leaguers like the newcomer Jinnah, who had quickly gained ascendancy in the organisation, stressed to the Congress the need for a rapprochement between the two parties and for agreement on constitutional issues. This was necessary because important reforms aiming at broadening the base of democracy were expected to be introduced by the Government at the end of the World War.

Efforts to secure an agreement between the Congress and the Muslim League on a scheme of constitutional reforms bore fruit in December 1916, when the Congress-League Pact was signed at Lucknow where the two parties were holding their annual sessions simultaneously. The chief architect of this famous "Lucknow Pact" was Mahomed Ali Jinnah, who presided over the League Session. His efforts earned him the title of the "Ambassador of Hindu-Muslim unity". The agreement showed the new spirit of compromise at its best. Important concessions were made by both the parties. The

Congress accepted the principle of separate electorate which earlier it had violently opposed, and even agreed to its extension to the Punjab and the Central Provinces. It agreed that the Muslims should have weightage in the elected bodies of the provinces where they were in a minority. At the Centre Muslims were to be allotted one-third seats in the council. No bill or resolution affecting a community could be passed if three-fourths of its representatives voted against it.

The League on its part agreed that the Hindus should also have weightage in Muslim majority provinces. Thus, in the Punjab the Muslims surrendered 10 per cent and in Bengal 25 per cent of their seats to increase Hindu representation. The Muslims also gave up their right to vote in the 'general' constituencies.

The two parties were to press the Government to accept their joint scheme of constitutional reform which also sought to make the provinces autonomous and to establish reasonably responsible governments in the provinces and at the Centre. In the provincial and central legislative councils four-fifths of the members were to be popularly elected and they, in turn, would elect at least half the members of provincial and central governments. The use of veto by the executive heads was to be minimum. The Government of *India* was to have exclusive control of military and foreign affairs but *India* was to have 'an equal status with that of the Dominions in any body concerned with Imperial affairs'.

The Lucknow Pact was the high watermark of the League-Congress rapprochement. It aroused great hopes at that time and Jinnah in his presidential address expressed the opinion that a lasting solution to the 'most formidable' Hindu-Muslim problem had been found. The constitutional battle, he thought, had been 'half won already'.

This optimism, however, proved to be premature. The feelings of friendship and brotherhood engendered among the Hindus and Muslims did not endure long. Soon events shifted the centre of gravity of the political struggle from the conference rooms and legislative councils to the arena of mass agitation.

Montagu-Chelmsford Reform

Conscious of the growing political militancy in the country the British Government decided to use the carrot as well as the stick. In the summer of 1918 the Montagu-Chelmsford* Report was published. The Congress-League scheme was rejected and the Report came out with an ingenious device of 'dyarchy'. It proposed two categories of subjects: 'transferred' and 'reserved'. The former would be controlled by ministers elected from and responsible to the majority in the legislative councils while the latter would be the preserve of the Governor and his Executive Council responsible to the Secretary of State. Any 'essential' bill could be enacted by the Governor without

*Edwin Montagu, the Secretary of State for *India* and Lord Chelmsford, the Viceroy in *India*.

reference to the legislative council. At the end of ten years a commission was to report on the working of the system and to suggest necessary changes in pursuance of the declared goal of responsible government.

After certain modifications these proposals became the basis of the Government of *India* Act, 1919. Separate electorates were extended to all minorities and the upper chamber of the central legislature was to have a majority of elected members.

However, the Reforms were doomed to failure. For when the Act incorporating them was promulgated, the country was already seething with discontent, and political tension had reached a breaking point. This tension was the product of the excessively repressive measures adopted by the Government to meet the mounting political unrest. The Government came down heavily on the anti-government elements.

Rowlatt Act

In March 1919, the notorious Rowlatt Act was passed which dispensed with ordinary court procedure and authorised arrest without warrant, imprisonment without trial and secret trial without defence.

Jinnah, although he did not approve of violent methods in politics which this measure was meant to suppress, made a powerful speech against it when it was presented as a bill in the Imperial Legislative Council. It was 'a wrong remedy for the disease' and it had 'no precedent or parallel. . . in any other civilised country'. When the Bill was forced through with the help of the official majority in the Council, Jinnah indignantly told the Viceroy that the Government had 'ruthlessly trampled upon the principles' for which England had 'avowedly fought the War'. The passage of the Bill had also demonstrated the impotence of the Imperial Legislative Council and its subordination to the 'foreign executive'. To give point to his protest Jinnah resigned from the membership of this Council.

This was one kind of protest—vigorous but constitutional. Another kind of protest was planned by Gandhi—a protest by the mass of the people, extra-constitutional but intendedly non-violent.

Gandhi, freshly back from his political triumphs in South Africa, decided to dramatise the popular resentment against the Rowlatt Act by calling upon the people to offer *satyagraha*, or passive resistance—a somewhat novel technique devised by him in South Africa. 6th April, 1919 was fixed by him as the day for countrywide *hartal*, i.e., a general suspension of all economic activity. It evoked an overwhelming response which even startled Gandhi. There were big demonstrations, strikes and, what is more, unprecedented scenes of Muslim-Hindu fraternisation. But the *satyagrahis* (passive resisters) did not remain altogether passive or non-violent. Rioting, arson, and physical assaults came in the wake of the *hartal*. Alarmed, Gandhi declared that he had made a 'Himalayan blunder' and on 18th April, 1919 brusquely called off the *satyagraha* campaign—but not before the Jallianwala bloodbath of Amritsar had taken place.

Jallianwala Bagh Tragedy

On 11th April Brigadier-General Reginald E. H. Dyer, 'an old India hand', had taken command in Amritsar after an incident in which four Englishmen had been killed. He banned public meetings and processions. In spite of this ban a large meeting was held on 13th April in the Jallianwala Bagh, a public square in Amritsar, bounded by high walls on three sides. This act of defiance aroused the wrath of this egregious General. With a small force, Dyer went to the Bagh where the meeting was on, and blocking the only passage to the place, he ordered his troops to fire without giving the crowd warning to disperse. In ten minutes of sustained firing into the assembled crowd, unarmed and trapped—'a perfect target'—379 people were killed and 1,137 wounded. "That makes 1,516 casualties for 1,650 bullets fired."

The news of Jallianwala massacre and of the reign of terror in the Punjab was at first suppressed; then it trickled through, creating a world-wide scandal. The people in the country were stunned for a moment; then the stupefaction gave way to bitter resentment and fury. There was a sudden surge of rebellious sentiment.

Allies' Treatment of Turkey

The feeling of outrage produced by the Jallianwala massacre had not yet abated when the treatment meted out to Turkey by the victorious Allies further aroused fierce resentment among the Muslims.

The end of the First World War found the Ottoman Empire in a state of dissolution. The British and French forces had occupied its vast Arab dominions and it was clear that the Allies, despite Lloyd George's earlier assurances to the contrary, were now determined to dismember the Turkish Empire. Thus in May 1919 they allowed the Greeks to occupy Smyrna in Asia Minor. The Sultan-Caliph acquiesced in this violation of Turkish territory, but the Turks resolutely refused to do so. They rose in a national revolt under the powerful leadership of Mustapha Kemal Pasha.

The aroused feeling of Muslims of the subcontinent easily fused with the general sentiment of anger over the Jallianwala massacre. Maulana Mohammed Ali led a deputation in 1920 to England to impress upon Britain the folly of estranging Muslims by indifference to Muslim sentiments and by hostility to their interests. He told the British that the placing of Iraq, Syria, Palestine and Transjordania—the former Arab possessions of Turkey—under British and French mandates would never be accepted by Muslims. However his forceful pleadings failed.

At Sevres in August 1920, the Allies signed with the Government of the Sultan a treaty of peace which with its clauses regarding reparations, disarmament and penalties, and its sanction of Greek occupation of Smyrna, completed the humiliation of Turkey and outraged the Turks.

Non-Co-operation Movement

The Khilafat Conference held at Allahabad in June 1920, convened to protest against the treatment meted to the Caliph and Turkey, decided to launch a non-co-operation programme to get its demands accepted. Thus the 'Khilafat movement' automatically became a

part of the independence movement, and Congress began to take active part in it.

An extraordinary session of the Congress was held at Calcutta in September where Gandhi moved the non-co-operation resolution calling upon the people to renounce titles bestowed by the Government, to boycott councils, courts of law and colleges run by Government, to wear hand-spun clothes, and to refuse service in Mesopotamia. The Calcutta decisions were reaffirmed by the annual session of the Congress held in December 1920 at Nagpur. This historic session was marked by an emotional frenzy to which even leaders like C.R. Das and Lala Lajpat Rai, who were opposed to the non-co-operation movement, succumbed. One man, however, stood apart, namely Mahomed Ali Jinnah.

With rare courage Jinnah raised his lone voice against the proposed political action. Undeterred by the wild excitement among the 22,000 delegates assembled there, Jinnah coolly told Gandhi: "Your way is the wrong way; mine is the right way—the constitutional way is the right way." The courage he showed could only come from an unshakable conviction, and Jinnah was convinced that unconstitutional methods would only bring disaster and, in any case, conditions in the country were not ripe for mass action. The masses lacked political training, the country did not produce enough goods to replace foreign products which were to be boycotted, and there were not many national educational institutions to absorb students who were asked to quit schools and colleges run or aided by the Government. He warned the Nagpur Congress: "*You* will never get your independence without bloodshed. You are committing the *Indian* National Congress to a programme which you will not be able to carry out." Jinnah's performance deeply impressed a fraternal delegate from the British Labour Party, Col. Wedgwood, who was present at the Session. There was in India, he said, "at least one man who had the strength of character to stand by his conviction in the face of a huge opposition and no support whatsoever."

However, the Congress leaders were determined to make full use of the exultation and frenzy of the moment, so Jinnah's cold logic and practical approach went completely unheeded. Jinnah parted company with the Congress, and rather than compromise on principles, he gladly suffered temporary retirement.

The decision of Nagpur Congress to launch the civil disobedience movement opened the flood gates of mass agitation. The nationalist movement was now carried forward on surging wave of mass action. Struggles of all kinds were touched off, not always conforming to a non-violent pattern nor always confined to the twin issues of the Punjab and Khilafat wrongs.

The chief characteristics of the new upsurge was Hindu-Muslim fraternisation, spectacular and unprecedented. Muslims did not sacrifice cows at the time of Eid-ul-Azha (Muslim festival of sacrifice) and a Hindu religious leader, Swami Shardhanand, was even allowed

inside the Jama Masjid of Delhi, a Muslim mosque, to address the Muslims.

Early in July 1921, the Khilafat Conference met in Karachi and passed the famous resolutions which resulted in the trial and imprisonment of the Ali brothers. Their resolutions affirmed, *inter alia*: 'allegiance of the Muslim population to His Majesty the Sultan of Turkey, the Commander of the Faithful...' and declared it 'religiously unlawful for a Mussalman at the present moment to continue in the British army or to induce others to join the army'. The Conference also extended its support to Mustapha Kemal who was congratulated for his magnificent victories. The British were warned that if they took 'any military measures against the Angora Government', the *Indian* Muslims would commence 'breaking of laws, i.e., civil disobedience' and will 'proclaim the complete independence of *India*' and will establish a Republic.

The feeling against the British ran so high at the time that when the Prince of Wales, sent on a loyalty-rousing trip to the subcontinent, landed in Bombay on 17th November 1921, a complete *hartal* was observed all over the country. In Bombay itself his arrival was the signal for an outbreak of rioting. In Calcutta the centre of the city passed into the hands of Congress volunteers. "It was like a city of the dead," said the London *Times*. Everywhere the Prince was greeted with sullen resentment. The visit was a dismal failure.

HINDU-MUSLIM BREAK-UP

Soon, the Congress leader Gandhi himself began to feel dissatisfied with the general trend; he was particularly alarmed by the rising militancy among his followers. Eventually in February 1922, after a show of violence between the police and some peasants in a village called Chauri Chaura, he called off the non-co-operation movement. Later, the treaty of Lausanne in July 1923 and the abolition of the Caliphate by Mustapha Kemal in 1924, broke down the Khilafat movement also.

The Congress, by the admission of its own leader, had blundered in initiating mass agitation, and Jinnah's warning had come true. Secondly, the Muslim masses had demonstrated that given half a chance they would co-operate whole-heartedly with the Hindus and make a common cause with them. That chance withdrawn, as it shortly was, the partnership foundered.

The Congress followers, stunned by the sudden suspension of civil disobedience movement, turned their attention elsewhere. Their 'suppressed violence', as Nehru noted, 'had to find a way out', and soon fraternisation gave place to rioting between Hindus and Muslims. There were riots in Multan and Bengal in September 1922, and later, in Kohat. "If *azans* and *peepul* trees and noisy processions are our horizon's utter sum," said Mohammad Ali plaintively, "let us ring down, this farce is nothing worth."

Swami Shardhanand started his *shuddhi* and *sanghattan* movement

to reconvert to Hinduism all those who had earlier embraced Islam, and to organise Hindus into a disciplined militant body. This added fuel to the communal fire.

Constitutional Proposals

Jinnah re-emerged from his retirement to salvage what he could from the wreckage of Hindu-Muslim amity, which he had done so much to forge at Lucknow in 1916. After the failure of non-co-operation the pendulum had swung back to constitutionalism. Even in the Congress the *swarajists*, or the 'pro-changers', who, like Jinnah, favoured fight on the parliamentary plane within the legislatures, gained ascendancy. Speaking in the Legislative Assembly in 1925, Jinnah declared: "I, Sir, stand here with a clear conscience and I say that I am a nationalist first, a nationalist second and a nationalist last."

In his eagerness to co-operate with the Congress, Jinnah resolutely fought the conservative section of the League led by Sir Mohammad Shafi. This conflict came to a head over the question of co-operation with the Simon Commission constituted by the British Government in November, 1927, in pursuance of the 1919 Act, to make recommendations for constitutional changes in *India*.

The Commission had no *Indian* member and was purely British in composition. This caused great resentment and the Congress decided to boycott the Commission. The Muslim League was divided over the issue. The faction led by Sir Mohammad Shafi favoured co-operation with the Commission. Jinnah on the other hand opposed it. The League was, thus, split in two. In December, 1927, two League sessions were held simultaneously—one under Sir Shafi's presidentship at Lahore and the other under Sir Mohammad Yakub's presidentship at Calcutta. Jinnah played a dominant role in the Calcutta session which decided to boycott the Commission and to appoint a sub-committee to negotiate with the Congress and other organisations with a view to drafting a constitution for India. The session also demanded:

(*a*) The formation of a separate province of Sind;

(*b*) Introduction of reforms in Baluchistan and in the NWFP on the same lines as in other provinces;

(*c*) Reservation of one-third seats for Muslims in the central legislature; and

(*d*) A constitutional guarantee that no bill on communal matters would be considered or passed if a three-fourths majority of the representative of the community concerned were opposed to it.

If these demands were accepted, the resolution declared, the Muslims would be willing to abandon separate electorates and

weightage and would be contented with mere reservation of seats in proportion to the population.

This was a generous gesture. If only the Congress had clasped the hand of friendship extended by Jinnah, Hindu-Muslim unity might have been revived; but this was not to be.

Nehru Committee Report

As a counterpoise to the all-white Simon Commission, the All Parties Conference convened by the Congress in February 1928 appointed a committee under the chairmanship of Motilal Nehru to prepare the draft of a Constitution for India.

The report of the committee—the *Nehru Report*, as it is called—was published in the middle of 1928. It recommended the separation of Muslim-majority Sind from Bombay and its elevation to the status of a province, and proposed the introduction in the N-WFP of the same form of government as in other provinces. But these were about the only concessions made to the Muslims. Their other demands were firmly rejected. Separate electorate and weightage was to be abolished. So was the reservation of seats in the Punjab and Bengal. There was to be reservation of seats for the Muslims only in the provinces where they were in a minority, and for the non-Muslims in the N-WFP, but it would be in proportion to their population, and they would have no weightage. At the Centre, seats would be reserved for the Muslims but again on population basis. The Report also recommended introduction of adult suffrage and the establishment of a unitary form of government at the Centre.

These proposals came as a great disappointment to the Muslims. They were insistent on retaining separate electorate and weightage—at least until such time as their other demands were satisfied. The failure of the Nehru Committee to accept these demands made the motives of its members suspect in the eyes of the Muslims. The Committee seemed to be working for the establishment of Hindu *raj in India*. This suspicion was further strengthened by the Report's recommendation of a *unitary* as against a *federal* basis for the central government. A strong, unitary Centre meant less autonomy for the provinces and it was only in some provinces that the Muslims were in a majority and could hope to exercise power.

Similarly, its refusal to reserve one-third seats for the Muslims in the central legislature, although Shuaib Qureshi, a Muslim member of the Committee, had pleaded for it, showed lack of generosity in Hindu attitude towards Muslims.

"Twenty-five per cent is our proportion of the population, and yet you will not give us 33 per cent in the Assembly. You are a Jew, a *Bania*," said Maulana Mohammad Ali angrily. The Nehru Report, he said on another occasion, would mean the establishment of Hindu Mahasabha's rule in the country.

The Report deepened the cleavage between Hindus and Muslims. Even stalwart Muslim 'nationalists' like the Ali Brothers now turned away from the Congress. The prospects of Hindu-Muslim unity receded

farther than ever before.

Jinnah, however, refused to give up. He still held out the olive branch. When the All Parties Conference convened to consider the Report met in Calcutta during Christmas week, 1928, Jinnah proposed three basic amendments to the Report. These were: (a) Muslims should have one-third representation in the central legislature; (b) In the Punjab and Bengal, in the event of adult suffrage not being introduced, Muslims should continue to be represented on the basis of their population for a period of ten years after which the position could be re-examined; (c) Residuary powers should not rest with the Centre but should vest in the provinces.

In a persuasive speech he pointed out that the Nehru Committee had itself said that under its scheme the Muslims were likely to get one-third representation at the Centre. Thus there could be no harm in fixing this ratio.

As regards the second amendment, he emphasised that it was meant to ensure Muslim representation in proportion to their population in the Punjab and Bengal in case adult franchise failed to materialise. For, under existing property qualifications, the voting strength of the Muslims, who were economically so backward, was far below their proportion to the population.

Similarly, Muslims attached great importance to the maximum autonomy for the provinces, for, under a strong, unitary Centre they would not be able to exercise much power in areas where they constituted a majority.

Making an impassioned plea for the acceptance of these amendments, Jinnah said: "... I am not speaking as a Mussalman but as an *Indian*. It is my desire to see that we get seven crores of Mussalmans to march along with us in the struggle for freedom."

But the amendments were rejected. Hindu Mahasabha's M.R. Jaykar's threat that if they were accepted he would not be able to prevent his Hindu Mahasabha members from pressing their violent and extremist claims carried more weight with the Convention than Jinnah's sincere and passionate plea for Hindu-Muslim unity.

Jinnah left Calcutta in a despondent mood. "He had tears in his eyes," recorded Jamshed Nusserwanji, who had gone to see him off at the railway station, "as he said, 'Jamshed, this is the parting of ways'."

So it was. The Hindu-Muslim unity lay in ruins. The parting of ways had finally come, although Jinnah was still to persist in looking for some common ground.

Jinnah's Fourteen Points

The different factions of Muslims united and on New Year's Day, 1929, an All Parties Muslim Conference met under the presidentship of the Aga Khan. It passed a resolution which, while reiterating the Muslim demands for a federal system with full provincial autonomy and residuary powers vested in the provinces, and for the continuation of the separate electorate and weightage, now also demanded that

Muslims should get their due share in the central and provincial cabinets. Jinnah incorporated these and other demands in his famous 'Fourteen Points' which provided Muslims with a programme for political action, until these were superseded a decade later by the resolution demanding Pakistan.

Thus the intransigence of the Congress gave a powerful impetus to Muslim nationalism. The refusal of the Congress to concede the legitimate demand of Muslims for effective constitutional safeguards revived the idea first put forward by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan that Hindus and Muslims were two nations. Some Muslims started thinking in terms of a Muslim state—comprising those parts of the subcontinent where they were in a majority.

The Round Table Conference

The British Government organised in London between 1930-32 three sessions of a Round Table Conference of representatives of the major political parties of Britain and *India*.

The Conference was held to discuss the Simon Commission Report published in May, 1930, and to hammer out constitutional proposals, with a view to promoting 'the attainment of Dominion Status'.

The *first session* of the Conference was held at a time when the subcontinent was being convulsed by the civil disobedience movement launched again by the Congress in April 1930, and there was growing antagonism between Hindus and Muslims.

The representatives of Hindus, Muslims and Sikhs who took part were chosen by the Viceroy.

At the Conference, Maulana Mohammad Ali demanded complete independence. The one purpose for which he had gone to the Conference—he, an ailing man who should not have travelled even seven miles—was: "I want to go back to my country, if I can go back, with the substance of freedom in my hand. Otherwise I will not go back to a slave country. I would even prefer to die in a foreign country so long as it is a free country, and if you do not give us freedom in *India*, you will have to give me a grave here".

These words could only have been uttered by a man burning with patriotism. Mohammad Ali's speech was the only saving feature of the Conference which had become (in Mohammad Ali's words) 'the *dhobi talao* (the washerman's tank) of *Indian* communalism'.

At the same time Mohammad Ali was not oblivious to Muslim interests. In a letter written to the British Prime Minister on the New Year's Day, 1931, he emphasised the need for adequate safeguards for Muslims. He also forcefully repudiated the notion that Muslims were a mere minority. Their political importance which distinguished them from other minorities derived from the historical fact that they had 'ruled over *India* from the beginning of the 8th century to about the 19th. . .' Moreover, "a community that in *India* alone must now be numbering more than 70 million, cannot easily be called a minority in the sense of Geneva minorities. . . ."

Three days later, true to his word about not going back to a 'slave country', he died. His remains were taken from London to Jerusalem to be buried in that holy place. Iqbal saluted his sublime end in a memorable poem.

The *second session* of the Round Table Conference began on 7th September 1931. The Congress attended this session, but Gandhi's role at the Conference was not helpful in evolving a solution to the communal problem which loomed large at the Conference. He rejected separate electorates and argued that the Hindu-Muslim antagonism was 'coeval with the British advent' and therefore, 'so long as the wedge in the shape of foreign rule divides community from community...there will be no real living solution, there will be no living friendship between these communities'. Thus the delegates from the subcontinent failed to reach an amicable settlement.

Later, in July 1932 the British Government announced its own scheme, known as the 'Communal Award'. The Award did not please the Muslims, for, under its terms they were to lose their majorities in the Punjab and Bengal. They were given 49 per cent of seats in the Punjab against their population of 57 per cent. Similarly in Bengal the Muslims formed 54.7 per cent of the population but were given only 48 per cent seats. On the other hand the Europeans in Bengal were given excessive weightage. They constituted only 0.01 per cent of the population but were given 10 per cent of the seats.

The *third session* of the Round Table Conference which opened on 17th November 1932, was mostly devoted to the scrutiny of reports of various committees. Neither the Congress nor the British Labour Party attended it.

The recommendations of the Conference were published in the form of a White Paper in March 1933. They formed the basis of the Government of *India* Act, 1935, which went on the Statute Book in July, 1935.

Government of India Act, 1935

The Government of India Act, 1935, abolished dyarchy and provided for responsible governments in the provinces. Each province was to have a Council of Ministers responsible to the Legislature whose advice would be normally binding on the Governor. Three lists were drawn up specifying subjects for federal, provincial and concurrent administration. The property qualifications were lowered in provinces, increasing the number of electors to 30 million. This meant that 10 per cent of the people were enfranchised. Sind was given the status of a province and the NWFP was brought into line with other provinces. Part II of the Act, which provided for a federal legislature and a federal executive, did not come into operation because it depended on the co-operation of the rulers of princely states, who were reluctant to extend it.

The Government of India Act, 1935, met with general disapproval. It was condemned both by the Congress and the League but both decided to contest the provincial elections held in 1937.

General Election

The two parties issued their election manifestos in late 1936. These manifestos had a good deal in common. If the Congress manifesto had socialistic overtones, the League manifesto, too, did not lack social and economic content. The League expressed its resolve to work for the replacement of the 1935 Act 'by democratic full self-government'. The formation of the Muslim League party in every Assembly was a necessary corollary of the separate electorates but 'there would be free co-operation with any group or groups whose aims and ideals are approximately the same as those of the League Party.' As far as the Muslim interests were concerned the League pledged itself 'to protect the religious rights of Mussalmans', 'to protect and promote the Urdu language and script', and 'to devise measures for the amelioration of the general conditions of the Mussalmans'.

There was, thus, nothing in the programme of the League which could prevent the Congress from coming to terms with it on a reasonable basis. In fact, the League manifesto was tantamount to 'an offer of co-operation'. Not only that. In the elections that followed there was no straight fight between the two parties. In the United Provinces the League and the Congress even agreed to fight the election on common platform. Elsewhere too, there was established 'something like a concordat between the two parties'. Jinnah in his election speeches was conciliatory in the extreme and emphasised the common aims of the League and the Congress. "There is no difference between the ideals of the Muslim League and of the Congress, the idea being complete freedom for *India*..."

However, Jinnah was firm on one point. If there was to be any fruitful co-operation, the Congress must recognise the Muslim League as the most representative and authoritative organisation of the Muslims and must not itself presume to speak for Muslims. Jinnah had learnt from bitter experience that the Congress could not be entirely trusted with Muslim interests. Thus when Nehru declared in one of his election speeches in Calcutta that there were only two parties in the country, namely the Government and the Congress, and the others must line up, Jinnah retorted that there was also a third party, 'and that is the Muslims'.

In election results, the Congress won a big victory in the non-Muslim constituencies; it captured 714 seats in all. It had contested only 58 Muslim seats, and of the 26 it won, 15 were in the NWFP and a meagre 11 in the rest of the country. It was thus clear that the Congress was a predominantly Hindu organisation and could not claim to represent Muslims.

The performance of the Muslim League was admittedly not very impressive. It managed to capture only 102 out of 482 Muslim seats. Its showing in the Muslim majority provinces was particularly poor. The failure of the League was due to the fact that it was in a disorganised state and had not fully recovered from the paralysis which had struck it in the early Thirties. Jinnah, disgusted with the short-

sighted attitude of the Hindus and the 'spinelessness' of several Muslims 'who, whatever they may say to me, will consult the Deputy Commissioner about what they should do', had gone to England in self-exile. He had returned to *India* only in October 1935, in response to fervent appeals of Muslim leaders—Iqbal, among them—to take up the task of reactivising the Muslim League. The surprise was that within such short time he infused a new life into the organisation. Under his inspired leadership, it was soon to lead, against heavy odds, the epic struggle for Pakistan.

In any case, the 1937 elections had made it clear that if any party could claim to speak for Muslims, it was the Muslim League, which alone among the parties that had won Muslim seats, had an All *India* character and could boast of a centralised organisation.

The Congress ignored this factor. It had swept the polls in five provinces—the U.P., Bihar, the C.P., Orissa and Madras—and was in a position to form ministries in two more provinces—Bombay and the NWFP. Thus it could control seven out of eleven Indian provinces. This success went to its head.

Congress's Ministry-Making

The Governors, under the Act of 1935, had been invested with certain special responsibilities, chief among which was the 'safeguarding of all the legitimate interests of minorities'. The Congress did not like this. It decided in July 1937 to accept office only after the Viceroy, Lord Linlithgow, had given an assurance that provincial Governors would be anxious 'not merely not to provoke conflicts with their Ministers but to leave nothing undone to avoid or resolve such conflicts'. Congress ministries were formed in seven provinces including the NWFP and, later, Congress coalition governments were formed in Assam and Sind. Only the Punjab and Bengal remained under non-Congress rule.

Under the Government of *India* Act, the Governor was asked to include in his council of ministers 'so far as practicable members of important minority communities'. As in most of the Hindu-majority provinces where the Congress had emerged victorious, a considerable proportion of Muslim seats had gone to the Muslim League, it was expected that Muslim ministers will be chosen from among the successful Muslim League candidates. The non-League Muslim members who were elected did not belong to any representative Muslim organisation of an All-*India* character nor had a programme even half as comprehensive as that of League. Moreover, the Congress and the League had not fought elections as antagonists.

In one province, the United Provinces, the claim of the Muslim League to a share in the Provincial government seemed to be particularly strong. Here out of 64 Muslim seats the League had annexed 27. The Congress had failed to capture any of the nine Muslim seats it had contested. The Muslim independents gained 28 and the National Agricultural Party 9 seats. A little before the Congress decided to form ministries, a Congress Muslim, Rafi Ahmad Kidwai, was

elected in a bye-election because the Muslim League, to preserve the atmosphere of goodwill, did not contest the seat.

As the Independent Muslims did not have a party or programme of their own and the National Agricultural Party represented only a section of landlords, it was natural that the Congress should offer the Muslim League a share in the Cabinet, and that the Muslim ministers should be the League nominees. Besides, such a move on the part of the Congress would have been an earnest of its desire to win back the Muslims with whom its relations had been estranged since the collapse of the Khilafat movement and the publication of Nehru Report.

The Congress, however, was in a different mood. On behalf of the Congress High Command, Maulana Abul Kalam Azad put forward preposterous conditions for including Muslim League representatives in the U.P. Cabinet. The Muslim League Party was asked to 'become part of the Congress Party'; its members were required to submit 'to the control and discipline of the Congress Party' in an equal measure with other members; to 'faithfully' carry out 'the policy laid down by the Congress Working Committee for their members in the Legislatures', and to resign from the Ministry or from the Legislature 'in the event of the Congress Party deciding on resignation'. Moreover, the Muslim League was asked to dissolve its provincial Parliamentary Board, and 'no candidates will thereafter be set up by the said Board at any by-election'.

The conditions were rejected by the Muslim League with the contempt they deserved. These conditions were based on the arrogant belief of the Congress Party that no organisation could stand up to it; not the Muslim League, which had in its view no support among the Muslim masses. Deprived of power in every province, the League would go into wilderness and, before long, would wither away.

In the event, this contemptuous attitude of the Congress gave the Muslim League a new strength as a mass organisation. Besides, from now on they had no illusions about their fate as a minority in an independent *India* under Congress rule.

Congress Rule in Provinces

The Congress rule in the Hindu-majority provinces did nothing to allay the fears of Muslims. Complaints poured into the League office that Muslims were being subjected to 'hardships, ill-treatment and injustice. The League appointed a special committee under Raja Syed Mohammad Mehdi of Pirpur to inquire into Muslim grievances. The report of the committee—the *Pirpur Report*—was submitted in November, 1938, and was later supplemented by the *Shareef Report* 'concerning Congress high-handedness in Bihar'. Fazlul Haq, the premier of Bengal, also issued an indictment of Congress rule.

These documents catalogued the excesses and improprieties of the Congress rule, and the reaction of the Muslim population to them. They recorded Muslim resentment against the flying of the Congress flag from public buildings, the use of *Bande Matram* (from that anti-

Muslim novel *Anand Math*) as the national anthem, ban on cow slaughter, the increasing use of Hindi at the expense of Urdu, inadequate representation of Muslims in public services, public reverence paid to Gandhi, and numerous other such acts of omission and commission. Muslim wrath was further aroused when the Congress government implemented the Wardha Scheme of Education in the form of Vidya Mandirs (Temples of Learning) in the Central Provinces. The very word 'Mandir' smacked of idolatory and was obnoxious to the Muslims. The main objection of the Muslims, however, was that it sought to inculcate in the small children a reverence for Hindu traditions and Hindu heroes, both past and present. Small children were made to worship Gandhi's portrait and the text books extolled the virtues of Hindu culture.

The Congress rule thus produced a deep sense of insecurity among Muslims who were persuaded that their very religion was in danger. They were also disappointed by the unwillingness of the provincial Governors to use the special powers to safeguard Muslim interests.

No wonder when the Congress ministries relinquished office in November 1939 in a huff against the British, the Muslims heaved a sigh of relief. Their reaction was that of 'good riddance'. Jinnah called upon Muslims to observe 22nd December as the "Day of Deliverance". It brought into sharp focus the complete alienation of Muslims from the Congress as well as the Muslim grievances against the Congress rule.

The gulf between the Congress and the League was wider than ever and the negotiations for a settlement through talks and correspondence between Jinnah on the one hand and Rajendra Prasad, Gandhi, Bose and Nehru on the other during the period, 1935-39, all broke down.

THE DEMAND FOR PAKISTAN

Two-Nation Theory

In October 1938, the Sind Muslim League Conference in a significant resolution asked the Muslim League 'to review and revise the entire question of what should be the suitable constitution for *India*....' and, 'to devise a scheme of Constitution under which Muslims may attain *full independence*'. This, the resolution said, was 'absolutely essential in the interests of an abiding peace of the vast *Indian* continent' and in the interest of 'the two nations known as Hindus and Muslims'. The resolution also pointed out the 'acute difference of religion, language, script, culture, social laws and outlook on life of the two major communities and even of race in certain parts'.

This was the first time that the Muslim League had officially described the Hindus and Muslims as two *nations* and envisaged the attainment of *full independence* by Muslims.

This important resolution reflected the change of mood among Muslims and expressed Muslim reaction to 'the caste-ridden mentality and anti-Muslim policy' of the Congress ministries.

The two nation theory was, however, not new. Sir Syed Ahmad Khan and Maulana Mohammad Ali, as noted, had hinted that Hindus and Muslims were two nations. Hindu Mahasabha leaders, like Lala Lajpat Rai and V.D. Savarkar had explicitly stated this.

In 1930, a year after Jinnah formulated his Fourteen Points, Dr. Mohammad Iqbal, the great Muslim poet-philosopher, presiding over the Allahabad Session of the Muslim League propounded the idea of a Muslim state in the subcontinent in clearer terms than had been done before. He said:

> I would like to see the Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Sind and Baluchistan amalgamated into a single state. Self-government within the British Empire or without the British Empire and the formation of a consolidated North-West *Indian* Muslim state appears to me to be the final destiny of the Muslims, at least of North-West *India*.

He further stressed that in suggesting this he was not inspired by any feeling of ill-will towards other communities for whose 'customs, laws, religious and social institutions' he entertained 'the highest respect'. "Nor should the Hindus fear that the creation of autonomous Muslim states will mean the introduction of a kind of religious rule in such states." Actually such a Muslim state would bring 'security and peace to *India*' by establishing 'an internal balance of power'.

This was the first time that the idea of separate nationhood was voiced from the platform of the premier Muslim organization and by a man of the eminence of Iqbal. It was a short step from here to the demand of an independent Pakistan embracing north-east as well as north-west of *India*.

Nor was the idea of *dividing India* into independent states novel. As far back as 1877, John Bright, the British liberal leader of anti-Corn Law League fame, visualised five or six successor states in the subcontinent after the British withdrawal.

Six years later another Englishman, W. S. Blunt, had suggested in Calcutta that all northern *India* should be placed under Muslim government while southern *India* under Hindu government, with the British exercising suzerainty over both. After the outbreak of World War I, Lovat Frazer published a map in the *Daily Express* of London showing a Muslim "corridor" stretching from Constantinople to Saharanpur in the United Provinces. In 1917, Dr. Abdul Jabbar Kheiri and his brother Professor Abdus Sattar Kheiri put forward a plan for the subcontinent's partition at the Stockholm Conference of the Socialist International. In 1924, Lala Lajpat Rai, a Hindu Mahasabha leader, suggested partition between Hindus and Muslims whom he described as two *nations*. The *Nehru Report*, in 1928, made reference to similar suggestions put forward by some Muslims they had interviewed.

By the end of the Thirties Jinnah, after a similar process of disillusionment as Sir Syed's, had also veered round to the two-nation

theory. In an interview with the *Manchester Guardian* in October 1939, he underlined Muslim apprehensions regarding parliamentary democracy in India. It could only mean Hindu domination, 'a position to which the Musalmans will never submit'. Muslims could not be described as a minority when they were 'in a majority in the North West and in Bengal'. In an article written for the British weekly, *Time and Tide*, in January 1940, he reiterated his opposition to parliamentary democracy and to party rule. He rejected any federal objective which would result in Hindu raj, and urged that 'a constitution must be evolved that recognised that there are in *India* two nations who both must share the governance of their common motherland'.

Pakistan Schemes

Soon, the Muslim intellectuals and public leaders were busy propounding schemes for the implementation of the idea. Dr. Syed Abdul Latif of Hyderabad Deccan published a scheme for dividing the subcontinent into four Muslim cultural zones and eleven Hindu cultural zones. These zones would constitute the *Indian* Federation with a weak Centre. His scheme visualised large scale exchange of population. Sir Abdullah Haroon advocated two separate federations, each dominated by one of the two major communities. He, however, did not include Bengal and Assam in his Muslim federation. Two Aligarh Muslim University dons, Syed Zafrul Hasan and Dr. Afzal Husain Qadri, came out with a scheme even more complex and visionary than that of Dr. Latif. Nawab Sir Shah Nawaz Khan of Mamdot suggested division into five 'countries', and Sir Sikandar Hayat Khan, the Chief Minister of the Punjab, proposed a two-tier Federation—a regional and an All-India Federation—consisting of seven zones.

Pakistan Resolution

On 23rd March, 1940, the Muslim League passed the historic Lahore Resolution familiarly known as the Pakistan Resolution. Moved by Fazlul Haq, the Chief Minister of Bengal, the resolution said:

> No constitutional plan would be workable in this country or acceptable to the Muslims unless it is designed on the following basic principles, viz., that geographically contiguous units are demarcated into regions which should be so constituted, with such territorial readjustments as may be necessary, that the areas in which the Muslims are numerically in a majority, as in the North-Western and Eastern zones of India, should be grouped to constitute Independent States in which the constituent units shall be autonomous and sovereign.

The resolution authorised the League Working Committee 'to frame a scheme of constitution in accordance with these basic principles, providing for the assumption finally by the respective regions of all powers such as defence, external affairs, communications, customs and such other matters as may be necessary'.

In his presidential address Jinnah emphasised:

> The Hindus and Muslims belong to two different religious philosophies, social customs, literatures. They neither inter-marry nor inter-dine together and, indeed, they belong to two different civilisations which are based mainly on conflicting ideas and conceptions. Their concepts on life and of life are different.... They have different epics, different heroes and different episodes. Very often the hero of one is a foe of the other and, likewise, their victories and defeats overlap. To yoke together two such nations under a single state, one as a numerical minority and the other as a majority, must lead to growing discontent.. Mussalmans are a nation according to any definition of a nation, and they must have their homeland, their territory and their state.

The Lahore Resolution, spurred the Muslim middle classes to unprecedented political action.

By the same token, it aroused bitter hostility among Hindus. The word 'Pakistan' was not mentioned in the Resolution but the Hindu Press and public leaders 'dubbed' the proposed Muslim state as 'Pakistan'—land of the clean—referring angrily to the implication that non-Pakistanis were 'unclean' and also to the pan-Islamic orientation inherent in the scheme of Chaudhri Rahmat Ali, the inventor of the word 'Pakistan'. Jinnah gratefully accepted the currency given to the name 'Pakistan' by the Hindu press.

The Congress reaction to the Muslim demand for Pakistan was characteristically unimaginative and inept. Rather than seek an amicable settlement with the League, it decided to mount pressure on the Government with a view to coercing it to transfer power to the Congress. Gandhi did not regard an agreement between different sections of people as indispensable for the success of the struggle for freedom. "It is an illusion created by ourselves that we must come to an agreement with all parties before we can make any progress." He was confident that if the Congress 'does not weaken and has enough patience, it will develop sufficient strength to take delivery'.

From this point onwards, the League stiffened in its attitude towards the Government to prevent the latter from succumbing to the Congress pressure, and to drive home the Muslim determination to achieve Pakistan. Jinnah was given the sole authority to negotiate on behalf of the League with the Government or Congress leaders. Muslims were asked not to serve on war committees without Jinnah's permission. Jinnah was now the *Quaid-i-Azam*—the Great Leader of *Indian* Muslims.

Britains "August Offer"

In June 1940, Jinnah, in his talks with the Viceroy, insisted on an assurance that the Government would make no new constitutional proposals without the consent of Muslims.

The British Government in its "August Offer" gave a categorical

assurance that it would not countenance 'any system of government whose authority is directly denied by large and powerful elements in *India's* national life'. The Government consented to the setting up after the War of an Indian Constituent Assembly, 'a body representative of the *principal elements* in *India's* national life in order to devise the frame-work of the new Constitution'. Meanwhile the parties were invited to co-operate in the war effort. The League could not accept the offer because it was to have only two representatives on the Viceroy's Executive Council and because of the 'most unsatisfactory' nature of other interim arrangements. But the Government's assurance, that no constitutional arrangements will be made without the consent of Muslims, was a great triumph for the League.

Congress Satyagraha

The Congress rejected the "August Offer" out of hand. In October-November 1940, Gandhi decided to launch 'individual satyagraha'. He chose a number of individuals who, after giving notice to the authorities, would 'appear at a particular spot, start anti-war slogans and be carted away to jail'. The movement, even when, in April 1941, it was extended beyond Gandhi's chosen followers and thrown open to all Congress-men, failed to develop into a mass revolt and was later called off. The Muslim League condemned it as an act of blackmail. It was designed to coerce the Government into transferring power to the Congress and, 'thus relegate the Muslim nation of 100 million and the *Indian* minorities to the status of mere subjects of Hindu Raj. . . .' Any such surrender on the part of the Government would be tantamount to 'a flagrant breach of faith' and the Muslims would 'resort to every measure and method to resist it with all the power they can command'.

The League's hold on the Muslims was clearly demonstrated when, at its call, the Muslims as a body kept aloof from this movement. Its growing strength was even more impressively demonstrated when at its bidding three Muslim provincial Chief Ministers, Sir Sikander Hayat Khan of the Punjab, Fazlul Haq of Bengal, and Sir Saadullah of Assam, resigned from the National Defence Council constituted in July 1941. Sir Sultan Ahmad and Begum Shah Nawaz, the two Muslim members, who refused to resign were expelled from the League. Later, when Fazlul Haq seemed to adopt a recalcitrant attitude, he too was expelled.

Cripps Mission

The first months of 1942 saw the Japanese forces advancing relentlessly towards the subcontinent. British forces had been driven out of Malaya and had abandoned Singapore, until then considered impregnable. Then, on 7th March, Rangoon fell, exposing Bengal and Assam to an imminent threat of Japanese invasion.

Four days later, Churchill announced that Sir Stafford Cripps was being sent to the subcontinent with proposals for 'a just and final solution'. The Cripps proposals envisaged the setting up of a Constitution-making body at the end of the War, to frame a Constitution

for the country which was to achieve full Dominion status. General elections were to be held after the War and the Constitution-making body would be elected by the Lower Houses of the new provincial legislatures through proportional representation. The princely states would be free to adhere to the new Constitution and they would be adequately represented in the proposed Constituent Assembly. Any province would have the right to contract out of the Constitution and 'to retain its present constitutional position, provision being made for its subsequent accession if it so desires'. *Provinces choosing to remain outside the Indian Union could form a Union of their own.* To effect the transfer of power and to implement the new Constitution, a bilateral treaty would be signed between the Constituent Assembly and the British Government. The treaty would safeguard the interests and rights of religious and racial minorities. Existing treaty arrangements with the princely states would be revised to meet the new situation.

For the duration of the War, Britain was to retain power and to continue to direct India's War effort. The leaders 'of the principal sections of the *Indian* people' were, however, invited to 'immediate and effective participation' in the 'counsels of their country' and thus to 'give their active and constructive help' in its defence. The Commander-in-Chief would still be the Minister of Defence but an *Indian* would be appointed as a Minister of Defence Co-ordination.

The precise and definite nature of the Cripps offer represented an advance upon the earlier indeterminate British declarations. But it was found unsatisfactory by the leaders of the subcontinent and the Cripps mission failed.

The Congress totally rejected the proposals. It objected to the non-accession clause. Although it did not want to *compel* 'the people of any territorial unit to remain in an *Indian* Union against their declared and established will', it refused to accept '*beforehand*' 'the novel principle of non-accession for a province'. The Congress also rejected the proposals pertaining to the War-time administration. It demanded the transfer of Defence portfolio to an *Indian* Minister and also the immediate setting up of a provisional National Government with full powers of a Dominion cabinet.

The Congress was interested in an immediate transfer of effective power. The military outlook seemed to be dark for Britain. Why then accept what Gandhi described as 'a post-dated cheque on a bank that was obviously failing'? The Congress, thus, asked for a 'position for themselves of complete power during the interim period', but, as Cripps pointed out, 'none of the minorities would have accepted such a position, and least of all Muslims'.

The Muslim League, too, rejected the Cripps proposals, but with much less vehemence. It was gratified that the proposals had at least implicitly recognised the possibility of Pakistan through the non-accession provision. However, the procedure laid down for the

provinces to contract out of the *Indian* Union could only relegate the creation of Pakistan to the realm of remote possibility. The Muslims were in a minority in the Punjab and Bengal legislatures, and in the Sind and Frontier Assemblies the non-Muslims enjoyed a heavy weightage. It was not, therefore, easy to obtain a majority in these provinces for non-accession. The alternative provision for a plebiscite in which not merely the Muslims but the *entire* adult population would participate, was not acceptable because it denied the Muslims the right of self-determination.

The League demanded the setting up of two Constitution-making bodies instead of one. It criticised the method of electing the proposed Constituent Assembly for not being based on the principle of separate electorate.

Unlike the Cripps mission, the Congress refused to recognise the strength of Muslim demand and made no attempt to come to terms with the League. When C. Rajagopalachari moved a resolution at the meeting of the All *India* Congress Committee in April, 1942, recommending the recognition of the Muslim League's claim for separation with a view to securing the installation of a national government with the co-operation of the League, it was haughtily rejected as 'highly detrimental to the best interests of the people of the different...provinces and the country as a whole..'

"Quit India" Movement

The Congress was still determined to seize power through mass action. Meeting at Bombay, the All *India* Congress Committee passed the "Quit *India*" resolution on 8th August, 1942. The Quit *India* resolution endorsed Gandhi's earlier expressed view that not until the British quit would there be unity within the country. It proceeded to sanction a mass struggle on the widest possible scale towards this end.

The Government quickly arrested the Congress leaders. Then followed violence, sabotage and arson on a large scale. Communications were disrupted, railway trains were derailed, jails were stormed, bombs were thrown, and in some places even parallel administrations were set up. The Government replied with brutal repression.

The Muslim League condemned the agitation and advised the Muslims to keep completely out of it. In a resolution of August 1942, it declared that it was 'not a whit less insistent than the Congress on the attainment of independence, but the purpose of the Congress was not to secure freedom for all constituent elements in the life of *India* but to bring about the establishment of a Hindu Raj and to deal a death-blow to the Muslim goal of Pakistan'. Jinnah saw in the movement 'manifestation of an angered and desperate mentality', and described it as 'the most dangerous mass movement' with which the Muslims should have nothing to do.

As at the time of Gandhi's individual *satyagraha* movement in 1940-41, so now the Congress thought it fit to launch a fresh and a more violent movement without first coming to an agreement with the Muslim League. C. Rajagopalachari, as noted, had pleaded in vain for

such an agreement and had resigned from the Congress. In November 1939, writing in *Harijan*, Gandhi had himself said: "So long as there is no workable arrangement with the Muslim League, civil resistance must involve resistance against the League." So it did. And, in the absence of any understanding with regard to the demand for Pakistan, the Muslim League was not to blame if it regarded the Quit *India* movement as directed as much against Pakistan as against the British.

However, while denouncing the movement, the League leaders at the same time roundly condemned the repressive measures taken by the Government. Mr. Liaquat Ali Khan refused to support the amendment moved in the Central Assembly condemning the movement and supporting the Government action. Mr. Hussain Imam questioned the wisdom of the methods of 'repression and iron heel'. Maulana Zafar Ali Khan condemned the 'absolute repression' by the Government. Sir Mohammad Yamin Khan said that while the Congress had 'made a mistake' in resorting to civil disobedience the Government had 'made a *blunder*'. He pointed out that 'the Congress had left the door open for negotiations, while the Government of *India* banged it in an irresponsible spirit'. The League meanwhile strengthened its hold over several Muslim majority provinces by forming ministries in Bengal, Assam, Sind and the NWFP.

The "C.R. Formula"

By the time of his release in May 1944, it was perhaps evident to Gandhi that no headway could be made against the British without the co-operation of the Muslim League, whose hold over Muslims had recently been so unmistakably demonstrated. "The wretched British Government takes advantage of our follies," Jinnah had said, addressing the Delhi session of the League in 1943. "Can't we say, 'unite, unite and unite', and get the British out?"

Gandhi now accepted the formula evolved by Rajagopalachari—the "C.R. Formula"—to meet the Muslim demand for Pakistan, and agreed to meet Jinnah to seek a settlement with the League. The Gandhi-Jinnah talks, which dragged on for nearly three weeks during September 1944, were held on the basis of the C.R. Formula which envisaged the appointment of a commission at the end of the War to demarcate 'contiguous districts in the north-west and east of *India*, wherein the Muslim population is in absolute majority'. "In the areas thus demarcated, a plebiscite of all the inhabitants held on the basis of adult suffrage...shall ultimately decide the issue of separation from Hindustan..." If the majority favoured separation, a sovereign state would be established with the border districts retaining the right 'to choose to join either state'. In the event of separation, the states will sign mutual agreements 'for safeguarding defence, commerce and communications and for other essential purposes'. "Any transfer of population shall only be on an absolutely voluntary basis."

The Formula made it clear that the terms will be operative only in the event of 'transfer by Britain of full power and responsibility for the governance of *India*' and in the meanwhile the League would

endorse the *Indian* demand for independence and would 'co-operate with Congress in the formation of a provisional interim government for the transitional period'.

The talks eventually failed to produce results. The Formula had provided for mutual agreements between the new Muslim State and the Indian Union regarding defence, commerce, and communications. To these subjects Gandhi now added foreign affairs and finance. It meant that the new Muslim state was to be something less than sovereign.

Secondly, Gandhi refused to accept Jinnah's contention that the Muslims were 'a nation with our own distinctive culture and civilisation, language and literature, art and architecture, names and nomenclature, sense of values and proportion, legal laws and moral codes, customs and calendar, history and traditions, aptitudes and ambitions'. Gandhi on his part, taking a racial and an oversimplified view, could 'find no parallel in history for a body of converts and descendants claiming to be a nation apart from their parent stock'. To him the Hindu-Muslim question was a family quarrel and there could still be some arrangements made to keep them together. A confederal or federal arrangement was, thus, implicit in his argument.

In the third place, Jinnah was asked to trust the National Provisional Government, dominated by Hindus, to carry into effect the provisions regarding the demarcation, plebiscite and the setting up of the Muslim State. In view of the mutual distrust—deep and of long standing—this was asking a bit too much. The Hindus had shown a lack of goodwill in their attitude towards the Muslims all along the line and the Muslims could not be sure that the Hindus will not betray the trust reposed in them after the British had withdrawn.

Liaquat-Desai Pact

Another attempt to resolve the Congress-League deadlock was made before the year was out when Bhulabhai Desai, the leader of the Congress Party, and Liaquat Ali Khan, the deputy leader of the League Party, in the Central Legislative Assembly, evolved a formula for the formation of a coalition government at the Centre. Under its terms there was to be Congress-League parity in the interim government, the ratio of the Congress, the League and others being 40:40:20; representatives of minorities, in particular scheduled castes and the Sikhs, were to be included, and the commander-in-chief was to be a member of this government which was to 'function within the framework of the existing Government of *India* Act'. The reserved powers of the Viceroy were not to be invoked. In the provinces under Governor's rule, coalition governments would be set up.

Lord Wavell recommended the Liaquat-Desai Pact strongly to the Secretary of State for *India*. Jinnah, however, disowned the Pact as having no authority of the Muslim League. And in the Congress, although Gandhi gave it his blessings, the Pact did not meet the approval of other leaders.

Wavall Plan

The Liaquat-Desai Pact encouraged the Viceroy to explore further possibilities of forming an interim government. He flew to London to consult with his Government. These consultations led to the formulation of what is known as the "Wavell Plan".

The Plan was a rehash of the Liaquat-Desai Pact, but it was modified in one important respect. The League-Congress parity in the Central Government was changed into equal representation for Caste Hindus and Muslims. This encouraged the Congress to believe that it will get all the Hindu seats as well as some Muslim seats while the League felt that it will have the sole right to nominate all the Muslim members of the new government. The resulting disagreement between the League and the Congress over this question wrecked the Simla Conference which was held towards the end of June 1945, to consider the Plan.

The Congress refused to accept that it merely represented Caste Hindus and was not entitled to nominate Congress Muslims for the proposed interim government. Jinnah was equally insistent that all the Muslim members should be the nominees of the League which alone represented the Muslims.

General Election, 1946

The Simla Conference brought into sharp focus the urgent need for new general elections which could alone verify the respective claims of the Congress and the League.

The elections were thus held in the Winter of 1945-46. They resulted in a thumping victory for the League which secured 75 per cent of the total Muslim votes cast. By capturing all the 30 Muslim seats in the central legislature and 425 out of a total of 492 Muslim seats in the provincial legislatures, it vindicated its claim that it was the sole representative of Muslims. It won 113 out of 119 Muslim seats in Bengal. Another impressive victory was in the Punjab where it gained 73 out of the 86 Muslim seats. Khizr Hayat Khan Tiwana, a League rebel, saw his Unionist Party suffer an ignominious defeat. Although he succeeded in keeping the League out of office with the support of the Congress and Sikh members, the importance of the League victory in a province which was regarded as vital to Pakistan, cannot be exaggerated.

The Congress, while it swept the polls in non-Muslim constituencies, failed miserably to capture Muslim seats. In all, it won 24 Muslim seats, of which 19 were in the NWFP where it formed a ministry. It secured only 5 per cent of the total Muslim votes cast.

Reaffirmation of Pakistan Demand

The elections were an impressive demonstration of the Muslim solidarity. They showed that the Muslims were unanimous in their demand for Pakistan. In April 1946, a convention of the newly elected Muslim League legislators was held at Delhi. In an atmosphere of unprecedented enthusiasm, they passed a resolution demanding 'a sovereign independent state, comprising Bengal and Assam in the north-east zone and the Punjab, the NWFP, Sind, and Baluchistan

in the north-west zone'. Then each legislator took a solemn oath, pledging 'to undergo any danger, trial or sacrifice which may be demanded of me' for the attainment of the cherished national goal of Pakistan 'which is the only equitable, honourable and just solution of the constitutional problem' of the subcontinent.

Cabinet Mission

In July 1945, a Labour Government had come to power in Britain which showed itself determined to expedite the transfer of power in the subcontinent. A parliamentary delegation was sent early in 1946 and it found that '*India* had reached full stature of political manhood'.

In March 1946, the British Prime Minister, Clement Attlee, announced the appointment of a Cabinet Mission consisting of Lord Pethick-Lawrence, Sir Stafford Cripps and Sir A. V. Alexander. The Commission was to go to *India* to evolve in consultation with the *Indian* leaders a plan for the transfer of power. While expressing his belief that 'the minorities should be able to live free from fear' Attlee stated ominously for Muslims: "We cannot allow a minority to place a veto on the advance of a majority." Jinnah described this announcement as 'most deplorable'.

On arrival, the Cabinet Mission got busy consulting the political leaders. A tripartite conference with the Muslim League and Congress representatives was held. The Mission gave Jinnah the choice between a sovereign but truncated Pakistan, and a Pakistan with undivided provinces but not fully sovereign. Jinnah chose the latter, for two reasons: to arrive at a peaceful solution; and in the hope that a fully sovereign Pakistan would eventually emerge from the new constitutional arrangement. The League, therefore, submitted a memorandum proposing the setting up of separate Constitution-making body for the six Muslim Provinces (the Punjab, the NWFP, Baluchistan, Sind, Bengal and Assam) which would form one group. This group would deal with all matters except foreign affairs, defence and communications necessary for defence, which would be in the hands of the Union Government.

The Congress proposed more subjects to be placed under the Union Government. In addition to the above it named currency, customs, communications, planning and fundamental rights as Union subjects. The Congress conceded the formation of groups of provinces but only after a Constituent Assembly for the whole of the subcontinent had been constituted and had met. "In any event, Assam has no place in the group mentioned, and the NWFP, as the elections show, is not in favour of this proposal."

The difference between the two schemes was, thus, fundamental. The League's gesture of compromise failed to evoke any response from the Congress.

On May 16, 1946, the Cabinet Mission evolved a scheme for India's future which proposed:

(*a*) Establishment of a machinery to evolve a Union of *India* including both British *India* and the *Indian* states;

(*b*) Setting up of an interim Government at the Centre; and

(*c*) Formation of three separate and distinct groups of provinces, and setting up of Constituent Assemblies.

For (*a*), i.e., Union, it provided:-

(1) There should be a Union of *India* embracing both British *India* and the states which should deal with foreign affairs, defence, and communications, and should have the powers necessary to raise the finances required for these subjects.

(2) All subjects, other than Union subjects, and all residuary powers should vest in the provinces.

(3) Provinces should form groups, with executives and legislatures, as three different sections—A, B, and C—with the option to go out of a group by a majority vote of the legislature after the new Constitution has been formed.

For (*b*), i.e., setting up of an interim Government, it was understood that no appreciable advance had been made in that respect, for the Viceroy's veto was to remain unabated, and the paramountcy of His Majesty's Government over the states was not to be transferred over to the new Government excepting that all members of the Executive Council would be *Indians*. It was also believed that there would be fourteen members on the Council out of which the Viceroy contemplated inviting five members each from the Congress and the Muslim League, and one each from the Sikhs, *Indian* Christians, Parsis and other minorities.

For (*c*), i.e., Constitution-making body, it provided representation of each province, as well as each of the three major communities, on the basis of one member for each million of the population. The provincial representatives would divide thereafter into three Groups or Sections,—A, B and C. Group A would comprise the six Hindu-majority provinces of the United Provinces, Bihar, Orissa, Central Provinces, Bombay and Madras; Group B would contain the North-Western Muslim - majority provinces of the North-West Frontier, the Punjab, Sind and Baluchistan; and Group C would include the North-Eastern Muslim-majority provinces of Assam and Bengal.

This grouping arrangement or the 'zonal division' of *India* was brought out especially to meet the Pakistan demand of the Muslim League which had asked for two separate Constitution-making bodies for Hindustan and Pakistan, i.e., the Hindu-majority provinces and the Muslim-majority provinces, respectively. The Mission, thus, conceded Pakistan in substance through the grouping of provinces on communal basis and making three Constitution-making bodies instead of one for all practical purposes except foreign affairs, defence and communications.

The Congress was happy that Pakistan, as one Congress newspaper described it, had received 'a state burial in the document submitted by the Cabinet Mission'.

Jinnah decried the Mission for having advanced 'commonplace and exploded arguments against Pakistan'. However, on 6th June, the League Council meeting in Delhi accepted both the short and

long-term aspects of the Cabinet Mission Plan. The League took this decision because despite its serious drawbacks, the Plan, 'by virtue of the compulsory grouping of the six Muslim Provinces in Sections B and C' conceded Pakistan in embryo. The Council was hopeful that the Plan would ultimately lead to the establishment of a sovereign Pakistan.

The Congress deprecated 'the limitation of the central authority' envisaged in the Plan as well as the system of grouping of provinces which was 'unfair to some provinces, such as to the NWFP and Assam', and to some of the minorities, notably the Sikhs. However, it decided to join the proposed Constituent Assembly 'with a view to framing the Constitution of a free, united and democratic *India*'.

Thus in accepting the Plan which both the League and the Congress regarded unsatisfactory, each party had been actuated by the belief that the new constitutional set-up would work out in its favour and would not serve the ends of its adversary.

In pursuance of its proposals, on 16th June, 1946, the Cabinet Mission and the Viceroy named six Congressmen, five Leaguers, one Sikh, one Christian and one Parsi for the new Executive Council. The League accepted the suggestion but the Congress was not willing to join because the Viceroy's list did not contain the name of any 'nationalist' Muslim. Paragraph 8 of the Viceroy's statement of 16th June had said: "In the event of the two major parties or either of them proving unwilling to join in the setting up of a coalition Government on the above lines, it is the intention of the Viceroy to proceed with the formation of the Interim Government which will be as representative as possible of those willing to accept the statement of 16th May [i.e. the Cabinet Mission Plan]." Accordingly, the League expected that, as the Congress had refused to join in, the Viceroy would go ahead with the formation of the Interim Government consisting of the League nominees and such others who had accepted the Cabinet Mission Plan. The Viceroy, however, backed out. The League was dismayed. Jinnah accused Wavell of going back on his 'pledged word'. To the Muslims it was clear that the Government, while ignoring their interests, was determined to keep the Congress in good humour.

Congress Rejection of Cabinet Plan

Nehru, the new President of the Congress, addressing a press conference on 10th August 1946, said bluntly that the Congress was going into the Constituent Assembly, 'completely unfettered by agreement and free to meet all situations as they arise'. Even more blunt was his specific rejection of the Mission's proposal for the grouping of the provinces. He was certain that if, as the Congress interpreted the provision, the provinces would be allowed to decide for themselves whether they would join the groups to which they had been assigned under the Plan, 'there will be no grouping'. He argued that Section A, comprising the Hindu-majority provinces, will certainly decide against grouping. In Section B, the NWFP, and in Section C, probably both Assam and Bengal, but certainly Assam, (with

its Hindu majority) will decide against it. "Thus you see," he concluded triumphantly, "...this grouping business does not get on at all."

These—"the most fiery and provocative statements in his forty years of public life"—destroyed the prospects of a successful working of the Plan. It caused dismay to many of his own party men, and Abul Kalam Azad later described them as 'one of those unfortunate events which change the course of history'.

Muslim League's Reaction

To the Muslim League, this *volte face* did not come as a complete surprise. Its foreboding that the Congress had accepted the Plan only to sabotage it, came true. The League was now compelled to revise its own stand *vis-a-vis* the Plan. The statements of Lord Pethick-Lawrence and Sir Stafford Cripps rejecting Nehru's view-point and characterising any future attempts to prevent the grouping of the provinces as 'a clear breach of the basic understanding of the scheme' failed to dissuade the League from withdrawing its acceptance of the Plan.

In the July Session of the League at Bombay, Jinnah was bitter. He was 'like an army leader who has come in for armistice discussions under a flag of truce and finds himself looking down the barrel of a cocked revolver'. He was bitter against the 'pettifogging and higgling attitude' of the Congress and bitter against the British Government which had not kept its word regarding the formation of an Interim Government. The Council criticised 'the policy of the British Government of sacrificing the interests of the Muslim nation .. to appease the Congress, and the way in which they have been going back on their oral and written solemn pledges and assurances given from time to time to the Muslims'. It pointed out that the 'acceptance' of the Plan by the Congress was 'conditional and subject to their own interpretation which is contrary to the authoritative statements of the Delegation and the Viceroy'. Further, the Mission had not suggested any means or machinery to prevent the Constituent Assembly from taking decisions which would be *ultra vires*. "In these circumstances the participation of the Muslims in the proposed Constitution-making machinery is fraught with danger and the Council, therefore, hereby withdraws its acceptance of the Cabinet Mission's proposals."

Another resolution urged the Muslims 'to resort to *direct action* to achieve Pakistan' and 'to get rid of the present British slavery and the contemplated future caste-Hindu domination'. 16th August was fixed as "Direct Action Day". The resolution also called upon titled Muslims to renounce forthwith the titles conferred upon them by the alien Government.

The Congress resolution of 10th August asserting that it had actually accepted the Cabinet Mission Plan 'in its entirety' left Jinnah cold. "If the Congress could change so many times while the British were still in the country and power had not come to its hands, what assurance could the minorities have that once the British had left, Congress would not again change and go back to the position taken up

in Jawaherlal's statement?"

The Direct Action Day passed off peacefully except in Calcutta where there were dreadful Hindu-Muslim riots resulting in some 20,000 casualities, including about 5,000 dead.

Interim Government

Regardless of everything, the British Government persisted in its pro-Congress policy. On 6th August Wavell, at the bidding of the Secretary of State for *India*, invited Nehru to form an Interim Government. The Viceroy was overruled by Nehru when he suggested that the Muslim seats be left open for the League; and by Attlee, when he argued against the formation of the Interim Government unless the League was also willing to come in. The tempers were already frayed on the Muslim League side and the setting up of a Congress Government at the centre could only aggravate the situation. But Attlee, strangely enough, was concerned that if the formation of the Interim Government was delayed until the co-operation of the League was forthcoming, it would 'only exacerbate the tempers of the Congress Party leaders and perhaps lead to a definite break between them and the British authorities'.

Nehru's terms were accepted and he was allowed to nominate non-League Muslims to the five Council seats allocated to Muslims. The new Interim Government of Nehru took office on 2nd September. The show of flagrant partisanship of the Labour British government yet again was distressing for the Muslims, but the League also realised that it would be disastrous for Muslims if the entire field were left to the Congress. After protracted negotiations the League entered the Executive Council on 25th October.

Given the Congress-League relations, there was no possibility of the Interim Government functioning on the basis of the principle of collective responsibility. The League members refused to accept that Nehru, the Vice-President of the Council, held a position analogous to Prime Minister. He could only preside over the Council meeting in the absence of the Viceroy. Soon Nehru was accusing the League members of playing the role of a 'King's Party'. Liaquat Ali, the Congress alleged, was misusing his finance portfolio to obstruct the smooth working of the Government.

Constituent Assembly

Matters came to a head when, towards the end of the year, the League refused to attend the newly-elected Constituent Assembly. The League's contention was that Congress acceptance of the Cabinet Mission Plan was not genuine. To resolve the deadlock, all the leaders were invited to have talks with the British Government. Jinnah, Liaquat Ali Khan, Nehru and Baldev Singh accompanied the Viceroy to London. The talks began on 2nd December and, though unsuccessful in resolving the deadlock, ended in a triumph for the League in as much as the British Government unequivocally upheld its stand on the main point at issue, i.e., the grouping of the provinces in the Constituent Assembly. In a statement on 6th December, the Government said in

clear terms that its view on the question of grouping 'has been accepted by the Muslim League, but the Congress have put forward a different view'.

More important from the practical aspect was the last paragraph of the statement which made it clear that 'should a Constitution come to be framed by a Constituent Assembly in which a large section of the *Indian* population had not been represented, His Majesty's Government could not of course contemplate ...forcing such a Constitution upon any unwilling parts of the country'.

The Constituent Assembly started functioning on 20th January 1947. It passed the contentious "Objectives Resolution" and Nehru declared that 'no work will be held up in future, whether anyone comes or not'. The Muslim League contended that the Congress, the Scheduled Castes and the Sikhs had rejected the British Government's interpretation of the Plan. Therefore, the elections to the Constituent Assembly as well as its Sessions were '*ab initio* void, invalid and illegal' and its proceedings and decisions were '*ultra vires*, invalid and illegal'. The Assembly must, therefore, be dissolved. The Congress, on the other hand, became more vehement in its demand that either the League should end its boycott of the Constituent Assembly or it should quit the Interim Government. The Congress threatened to resign in case its demand was not met.

British Withdrawal

These wranglings in New Delhi were going on against the backdrop of ugly communal riots which had erupted in different parts of the country and threatened to develop into a civil war. Attlee was convinced that the situation called for bold action. He must cut the Gordian knot by setting a date for the British withdrawal from the subcontinent. This would create a sense of urgency among the *Indian* leaders and (as Lord Pethick Lawrence later told the House of Lords) would shock them into some kind of agreement.

On 20th February, Attlee announced the British Government's 'definite intention to take necessary steps to effect the transfer of power to responsible *Indian* hands by a date not later than June 1948'.

Mountbatten

The British Government also announced that Admiral Viscount Mountbatten would take over from Wavell as the new Viceroy of *India*. Earlier, Gandhi had urged Attlee to replace Wavell with 'an abler and legal mind'. Nehru had written to his English friends, influential in the Labour Party, criticising Wavell's desire to 'appease' Jinnah. There is, therefore, no doubt that this rather unceremonious exit of Wavell was, in large part, due to the Congress hostility to him.

Soon after his arrival in March 1947, the new Viceroy established a rapport with Nehru. On 25th March he was asking *Nehru's* opinion of Jinnah, and Nehru, needless to say, told him what he thought. The personal bonds that quickly grew between the Nehrus and Mount-

battens became the most noticeable feature of these last hectic days of the British *raj*.

Mountbatten's relations with Jinnah were, by contrast, cool and correct and remained so until the end. If anything they deteriorated under the stress of new developments.

The Mountbatten Plan

The new Viceroy threw himself into the task of making arrangements for the transfer of power with great zest. After having several rounds of talk with the leaders, Mountbatten drew up a plan for the transfer of power which envisaged 'the demission of authority to the provinces, or to such confederations of provinces as might decide to group themselves in the intervening period before the actual transfer of power'.

V. P. Menon, a senior Hindu Civil Servant and a confidante of Sardar Patel, who was the only *Indian* member of the Viceroy's staff, was then asked to make amendments and to draw up a time table. Menon did so but also appended his remark that the plan was 'a bad one and certainly would not work'. Nevertheless on 2nd May Ismay took the plan to London to obtain the approval of His Majesty's Government by 10th May at the latest.

Then came the reversal of the plan in circumstances as dramatic as incredible. Leonard Mosley, who had had the authoritative records at his disposal, relates in his *Last Days of the British Raj*, the details of what happened after this. After dispatching Ismay to London, Mountbatten along with Sir Eric Mieville and V. P. Menon, repaired to Simla. There, Menon expressed to the Viceroy his misgivings about the plan sent to London and outlined a plan of his own. While Mountbatten was still turning over Menon's arguments in his mind, Nehru, accompanied by Krishna Menon, arrived on 8th May to stay with the Viceroy. Two days later, Whitehall's approval of the Viceroy's plan was received. Mountbatten showed this approved version of his plan to Nehru. Nehru rejected it angrily.

Menon's Plan: The Final Settlement

When Menon was told by Mountbatten of Nehru's reaction to his plan, Menon suggested that his (Menon's) scheme would be acceptable. Menon was asked to draw up his scheme in black and white that very day. It was then shown to Nehru, who signified his assent. Jinnah was completely ignored and did not know what was going on.

Mountbatten himself took this plan to London and overcame the hesitations of His Majesty's Government by threatening to resign if the plan was not approved. The Government meekly approved it 'without the alteration of a comma'. Thus the Menon Plan—known as the Mountbatten Plan—emerged as the final settlement of the sub-continent's problem.

Mountbatten returned from London on 31st May and started consultations with the *Indian* leaders. The Congress leaders were willing to accept it—it had been, in any case, approved by Nehru even before it was approved by the British Government. They,

however, insisted that the League should also accept it simultaneously. When on 2nd June Jinnah asked for time to enable him to call a meeting of the League Council to consider the Plan, Mountbatten told him that in that case the Congress and the Sikhs would refuse final acceptance at the meeting the following morning. "Chaos will follow," he said darkly, "and you will lose your Pakistan, probably for good." "What must be, must be," Jinnah said imperturbably. Mountbatten did not give up, and finally Jinnah acquiesced in it.

On 3rd June Jinnah, Nehru and Sardar Baldev Singh broadcast their acceptance of the Plan. On 10th June the League Council and on 14th June the All India Congress Committee approved it.

The Plan laid down the procedure for the transfer of power. The provincial Legislative Assemblies of Bengal and the Punjab were to meet in two parts, one representing the Muslim-majority districts and the other the rest of the province. They were to vote separately whether or not the province should be partitioned. If either part decided in favour of partition by a simple majority, division would be effected. If partition was decided upon, each part would decide for itself whether it would join the existing Constituent Assembly or a new Constituent Assembly. Thereupon a Boundary Commission would be appointed 'to demarcate the boundaries of the two parts of the Punjab on the basis of ascertaining the contiguous majority areas of Muslims and non-Muslims'. A similar procedure would be followed in Bengal.

The Legislative Assembly of Sind would be asked to choose between the existing Constituent Assembly and joining the new one. European members would not vote.

In N-WFP, where a Congress ministry was precariously in office, this choice would be made by the electors of the existing Legislative Assembly through a referendum. A referendum would also be held in Sylhet, the only Muslim-majority district of Assam, to ascertain if it would like to continue to form part of Assam or to merge in the new province of Eastern Bengal. If it chose the latter, a Boundary Commission would demarcate its boundaries.

In the event of the Punjab and Bengal deciding in favour of partition and Sylhet deciding to join the new Muslim province, new elections to the two Constituent Assemblies would be held. The Sylhet district, the two parts of the Punjab and the two parts of Bengal, each of them would elect a specified number of Hindus, Muslims and (in the two Punjabs) Sikhs to represent them in their respective Constituent Assemblies.

The date of transfer of power was advanced from June 1948 to 14th August 1947.

Mountbatten and Pakistan

There was the question of appointing a Governor-General for the new Dominion of Pakistan. Mountbatten had already been offered and accepted the Governor-Generalship of the Indian dominion. Everybody, and above all the Viceroy himself, expected Jinnah to make

a similar offer. Mountbatten was thus expected to be the joint Governor-General of both India and Pakistan. When, therefore, on 2nd July, Jinnah decided to be himself the Governor-General of Pakistan, it came as a surprise. Mountbatten was not merely surprised. He was hurt: "The rebuff knocked against his most vulnerable point, his pride." His hostility to Pakistan was thus complete. It was this perhaps which led in large measure to Pakistan getting a raw deal in Sir Cyril Radcliffe's Punjab Boundary Award and subsequently to the beginning of the Kashmir dispute.

Jinnah's decision was based on reason. Mountbatten's partiality for Nehru and India was well known at the time; it is now also known how the 3rd June Plan was evolved to appease Nehru. Jinnah apparently considered it unwise that the infant state of Pakistan should be placed in the care of a man who had frowned upon its birth.

Independence

The Punjab and Bengal were divided when they, following the procedure laid down in the Plan, decided in favour of partition in July.

The Sind Assembly decided in favour of joining a new Constituent Assembly.

Sylhet decided in favour of joining East Bengal.

The people of the N-WFP decided by an overwhelming majority to join a new Constituent Assembly.

On 7th August, Jinnah left India for good and flew in to Karachi, the capital of the new State of Pakistan.

On 15th August he was sworn in as Governor-General of the new dominion. Pakistan as an independent Muslim State became a reality.

Pakistan was born amidst ferocious communal riots. As the Quaid-i-Azam said, it was no use 'to apportion blame as to which community has disgraced itself more'. The Quaid was appalled at the senseless mass slaughter. He assured the minorities in Pakistan that they had nothing to fear. Pakistan was not a theocracy—was never meant to be one. It was a nation-state and was meant to be a modern democracy.

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3. THE REVOLUTION

The period of national reconstruction and consolidation in Pakistan was delayed by more than a decade after independence and began only after a peaceful Revolution that came in October 1958. The delay can be ascribed to several causes.

BACKGROUND

At independence Pakistan came face to face with innumerable social, economic and security problems, so that in the initial years the struggle was for survival rather than for planned long-term progress and reform. The initial response of the leadership and the people enabled the country to withstand early challenges with remarkable self-assurance.

Unfortunately, Pakistan's top leaders did not live long enough, and their successors did not prove equal to the task that confronted them. The Quaid-i-Azam died just one year after independence when no major issue at home or abroad—the country's Constitution, refugee resettlement, Kashmir, to name only three—had been resolved, and when the principles of state policy, domestic and foreign, were still to be worked out. His lieutenant of long standing, Liaquat Ali Khan, possessed a fearless and commanding personality and a cool temperament. He succeeded in bringing the situation under control. Unfortunately his death, at the hands of an assassin, robbed the country of a leader of great merit. During the period of his administration, he was preoccupied with numerous immediate problems, among them a growing military threat from India, which reached a climax in the spring of 1951. Others included resettlement of refugees, putting together the administrative machinery, achieving some stability in provincial government, and evolving a pattern of foreign relations with

major powers. But the time allowed him was too short in which to resolve these problems completely.

Government in the Fifties

After Liaquat Ali Khan there followed seven unhappy and, at times, dismal years in Pakistan's history. The new leadership had played no front-rank part in the struggle for Pakistan, and it had hardly any national following. There was none left who, on account of his unquestioned position, could reconcile contending elements, who could urge supersession of the individual and parochial by the national interest, and who could create earnestness about vital tasks, such as constitution-making, that confronted the country.

There followed erosion of the principles of parliamentary government and a long period of political instability. The British form of government had fallaciously seemed transplantable to a completely different social and educational environments only so long as there were strong popular leaders and a strong political party to make up for the force of convention in political behaviour. When the leadership failed a major restraint was lifted and when the political parties also disintegrated, restraint disappeared altogether. Gradually and inevitably, politics passed into a bizarre tangle.

The Role of the Governor-Generals and President

The first symptom of unease was the role sought to be played by the two later Governor-Generals/President (the former office being replaced by the latter after the promulgation of the 1956 Constitution). Stepping into the Quaid-i-Azam's shoes they tried also to attain his supremacy over national affairs and this they could do only through extra-constitutional means.

Khawaja Nazimuddin, who succeeded Liaquat Ali Khan as Prime Minister, although a pious and respected leader, was admittedly, not an effective and vigorous Prime Minister. He solved a few problems creditably, chiefly the suppression of an orthodox religious campaign against a minority sect, the Ahmadiya, in Lahore, but he could scarcely grapple with others, such as food scarcity and the economic problems of the post-Korean war recession. Nevertheless, the dismissal of his cabinet by the Governor-General (Mr. Ghulam Mohammad), so that a new one 'better fitted to discharge its obligations' could be put in office was scarcely in order. It violated all parliamentary practice, because the dismissed Prime Minister had his Budget passed by the Legislature by a comfortable margin only a few days previously so that there was nothing to show he had lost the confidence of the House. However, in an early foreshadowing of future political conduct, several members of the dismissed cabinet came back with the new one, indicating that the Governor-General had been quietly supported in the Legislature. The support became outward when, a few days later, the Legislature expressed confidence in the new Prime Minister, an entirely new porsonality in national politics.

Thus the Governor-General asserted his supremacy by dismissing a popular Cabinet, by appointing a little known person to be prime

minister and getting for the latter the majority support and a seat in the Legislature. He asserted himself a second time when, in October 1954, he dismissed the whole Constituent Assembly because 'as at present constituted, it, has lost the confidence of the people, and can no longer function'. The charge was not without foundation, but the real cause was that the Assembly had, by a rare example of speedy transaction, sought to curtail his powers, keeping in mind no doubt his brusque treatment of the earlier Cabinet.

About this time the Governor-General tried to make another show of his control over events. He attempted to impose Martial Law in the country. The move did not materialise only because the Commander-in-Chief of the time, General Ayub Khan, firmly resisted it.

The next Governor-General's (later President's) method of asserting himself was different. Mr. Iskander Mirza did not choose to remain above politics and to come down drastically when he thought necessary; he chose to act from within by involving himself fully in party manoeuvres, making and unmaking governments. He even sponsored a new political party whose meetings were sometimes held even within the precincts of the President's House.

Politics in East Wing

The Muslim League had by dubious means managed to win the provincial elections in the three West wing provinces in the early fifties. When the election was held in the more populous East wing in 1954, the League was put to rout winning only ten seats; while its opponents, combined into a United Front, got 223.

However, within two months of taking office, the new cabinet was dismissed by the Central government on the ground of inefficiency, and Governor's rule was imposed. Later, after the restoration of constitutional government, the government of the United Front remained very unstable. Component parties and factions began to splint er off because their demands were not met. Although as many as 40 members of the coalition party were made ministers, stability remained elusive. No Assembly session was called for a year, and when it was, the Government fell. The next Government of the Awami League was more adroit and stayed in power longer. When dismissed by the Governor, it caused the dismissal of the Governor himself the following day through its coalition government at the Centre. The province again passed under President rule and after this was lifted, the Awami League, mainly because of its influence at the Centre, was called upon to form the government. By now, politics in the Province were marked by a weird unreality. Blows and brickbats were exchanged. The Speaker who belonged to the Opposition party received injuries from the government members and fled. He was then declared 'insane' by the vote of the majority party. Afterwards the Deputy Speaker, who belonged to the majority party and was officiating for the Speaker, was violently treated by the Opposition, and later died.

Politics in West Wing

The affairs of the West wing Assembly although less dramatic did no greater credit to the parliamentary system. The Chief Minister of the province was named before the reconstituted composite legislature (after the merger of the West wing provinces into one unit) took office. He belonged to none of the parties in the Provincial Assembly and therefore had no assembly backing. With the blessings of President Iskander Mirza, he founded a new Republican Party, which drew to itself half of the members of the majority Muslim League party by offers of offices and other rewards. However, in the very first business of the election of the Speaker the party was saved from defeat by the single vote of the presiding officer. Thereafter it could stay in power only by manipulating a majority by devious means, and once even by recommending suspension of the Assembly.

Politics at the Centre

The first Constituent Assembly of Pakistan consisted of members elected in 1946 by the members of the Provincial Assemblies in the Muslim majority provinces. Originally there were 69 members, but later the figure was raised to 79 to give representation to the acceding states and to the new population added. The Assembly combined in itself both constitution-making and legislative functions.

Constitution-making proved to be an interminable process. There were firstly the seemingly intractable constitutional problems, of which creating an acceptable balance between the eastern province with its greater population, and the western provinces was one; the other was the reconciling of Pakistan as a modern democratic nation-state with the requirements of an Islamic State. However, the factor that bedevilled constitution-making and stable governance at the Centre more than any other was the unprincipled conduct that had overtaken political life.

Each member of the Constituent Assembly representing about a million people seemed to have lost even that formal sanction of his position when in early 1954 the Muslim League Party in the East Wing Assembly was completely routed. The Party's strength in the province was reduced to less than 3 per cent of the total, while at the Centre it continued to have more than 75 per cent of the seats.

However, the situation was soon corrected—with worse consequences. The Constituent Assembly at the Centre was dismissed in October 1954, as mentioned, and indirect elections to a new one were held eight months later. The Muslim League representation was now reduced by half. After the constitution was promulgated in early 1956, and the general elections seemed due, its position further deteriorated. Soon, instead of one dominant party, there were three about evenly balanced, half a dozen smaller ones, and a substantial group of independents.

This caused frequent alignments and re-alignments, the forming and breaking of coalitions, and the inevitable trading of votes. The coalition governments of the League, the United Front and the Awami League, in separate combinations, held office at the sufferance of the

newly erected Republican Party: they fell whenever the latter withdrew its support. There were thus five governments between 1954-1958, ranging in life from less than two months to a year and a half. When, in the end, the Republicans found themselves in office, they were pushed around by the Awami League just as they had pushed the Awami League around before - making them, for instance, dismiss the Governor of East Pakistan because he had dismissed their party's government in the province on the ground that it had no longer commanded majority. They were forced to water down the rigorous anti-smuggling measures because their party in the Eastern province held office with the support of a dozen Congress members of the Provincial Assembly who in their turn had to look after the interests of the Hindu community which was the main sufferer of actions against smuggling.

The Economy

The manner in which the country's economy tried to establish itself in the most distressing circumstances of the early years has been mentioned in some detail in the following chapters. During the fifties, although the progress continued in some measure, the political malaise was reflected in the administrative and economic spheres.

The basic problem of food was so neglected that increasing dependence on foreign supplies became inevitable. Even food distribution had to be taken over by the army in East Pakistan because the Government there expressed inability to carry it out. The main reason for the shortage, especially in the West wing, was not so much the decline in production as hoarding and smuggling and neither provincial government found itself administratively capable or politically strong enough to adopt firm measures against this.

There was also widespread industrial unrest, and strikes became common. The disparity in income widened. Strong pressure groups influenced Government's industrial and commercial policies. Government treasury was empty and its foreign exchange reserves were depleted by large scale smuggling of luxury goods and an unbalanced import policy.

A striking example of the earnestness with which important development activities were handled was the publication of the First Five-Year Plan. It pertained to the period 1955-60. It was not prepared until a year after the period had started, not published until two years later, and never officially authenticated.

THE REVOLUTION

It had become clear by the autumn of 1958 that a complete break from the past was essential. The general election that was promised would unmistakably bring the same politicians back who were responsible for the confusion into which national affairs had fallen.

The Pakistan Army, reared in British traditions, was strictly a-political. It had helped civilian authorities on innumerable occasions, and not only in maintaining law and order and checking smuggling on

the borders, but even in such matters as distribution of foodgrain. In 1952, when Martial Law was enforced in the Punjab to check an outburst of sectarian hysteria, the Army acquitted itself well and efficiently leaving an impression that people did not easily forget.

The Leader

In 1954, the Governor-General had called in the Commander-in-Chief, Gen. Mohammad Ayub Khan, and suggested to him that the Army take over the country. The latter advised firmly against such action. He could not visualise the Army getting involved in politics and he thought affairs were not yet so hopeless.

In the later fifties, when the situation worsened very much, it was the people who now asked why the Army did not take over and give the country a respite from bad unrepresentative government.

Being convinced of popular sentiment after meetings with leaders of public, opinion and knowing the country's situation as he did, the Commander-in-Chief felt that he could no longer hold back. "If the people want me, I shall not shirk my duty." Accordingly he advised the President to place the country under martial law.

Twice in recent history it had been the destiny of the Muslims of the sub-continent to be saved and given a new lead by individuals. In the last quarter of the 19th century Sir Syed Ahmad Khan 'arrested as with a wall the degeneration of a whole people'. In the middle thirties the Quaid-i-Azam took over the leadership of the Muslims when they were likely to be swamped by a communal majority, and led them almost single handed to the triumphant achievement of Pakistan. President Ayub's achievements are contemporary events, and time must pass before his contribution can be fully judged. However, to the extent that he completely arrested a trend and placed the country on a new track, his Revolution is comparable with the achievement of the other two leaders. It was similarly inspired by a sense of the common good. It came at a time of national crisis, and it restored the country to its ideals.

The Revolution was peaceful, orderly and constitutionally oriented. Martial law, which lasted for 44 months and was then voluntarily lifted, was simply an instrument to make an unhindered and thorough break from the past.

General Ayub made sure that apart from him and a very few of his lieutenants the Army as a whole was confined to its normal duties. Accordingly, within days of the Revolution's commencement the displaced units were sent back to their barracks. Among his lieutenants, he retained only three in the Cabinet and, for the rest, the country continued to be entirely civilian. Except for a brief initial period, the laws continued to be administered by normal courts.

General Ayub had hoped to carry on the Government with its clean-up and reformatory measures, in co-operation and under the guidance of the President, Mr. Iskander Mirza. He had assured the latter of his full loyalty after the country had been placed under martial law, but it was soon demonstrated that this arrangement could not go on.

Mirza had meant to use the Army only as his tool. His supremacy established, he intended soon to resume his politics with now a docile ring of politicians. The new regime had, then, to remove this last remnant of the old order as well.

The Revolution was a logical sequel to the events which made no sense in any long-term perspective, and it was clear that the country was drifting away more and more from its appointed course. The drift had developed its own momentum, and it was necessary not only to halt it but to make a sharp turn.

The Revolution began with the change of leadership. The main task then was to change, and at a quick pace, the practices, the attitudes, and the institutions. It had to be a wide-ranging operation.

President Ayub has said: "My ambition was not to prove to the world how well I could run the show: my anxiety was to establish conditions and set up institutions to prove how well the country could run itself." The other objectives would have achieved quick and perhaps spectacular results, but they would have had to be temporary because not institutionalised. This Revolution was meant in effect to be a fresh opportunity given to the people themselves to make an earnest endeavour for their betterment.

The way of the Revolution was to be peaceful, persuasive. Hard and violent methods had to be eschewed: because, firstly, such methods established bad precedents, and, secondly, social change was not natural and lasting if it was forced by stringent measures.

Thus, President Ayub's Revolution, although intended to be wide-ranging and quick-moving, promised no quick results. It was aiming to change institutions and attitudes, and do it by persuasion and education.

Reforms

The reforms the country needed had to be planned in three phases. There was, first, the need for immediate short term measures to bring quick relief from such ills as high prices, hoarding and smuggling, corruption and insufficient housing. There were also needed long term institutional reforms to bring about not temporary but lasting changes, such as land tenure and ownership, education, health, industry and administration. Finally, a political structure had to be built from the very base to ensure genuine democratic government—in other words a system of government which was representative, effective in directing social and economic changes, and capable of taking root in the country.

Early Relief Measures:

Records showed that national wealth amounting to Rs. 9,000 million had been spirited away from East Pakistan alone through smuggling. Every year about one million ton of foodgrain went out on the sly—which was roughly the amount that had to be imported annually. This was immediately stopped. When in a few weeks a total of four-and-a-half tons of gold was hauled out of the Arabian Sea it was estimated that that was the normal quantity that had crossed the border each month. Sixty per cent of East Pakistan's jute trade was

in the hands of the Calcutta *marwaris*. The bulk of the wealth they transferred to India went through the smugglers' channels. When the Navy had started 'Operation Close Door' in the pre-Revolution years it had virtually to be abandoned because of political pressure.

It was known that there had been hoarding and blackmarketing of foodgrain on an alarming scale. Large quantities were recovered in the first few weeks only. Prompt measures were taken to end blackmarketing and millions of rupees of tax arrears were collected.

It was also necessary to make sure that the administration was freed of unprincipled officials, and elective bodies were made impregnable. A number of screening committees were set up in government offices to scrutinize the conduct of employees. As a result 84 top officers of the All-Pakistan Services were either compulsorily retired or demoted; 46 Class I, about 200 Class II and 1,300 Class III employees were similarly affected.

On independence, early ten million Muslims had migrated from India in most trying circumstances, having left behind valuable properties. They settled down wherever they could mostly in huts and shanties—and lived from year to year in sub-human conditions. They seemed to become a permanent class known as 'refugees'.

There were two sides to the settlement problem. One was to house the thousands of shelterless refugees and the other to give compensation to those who had left behind property in India.

A tract of land at Korangi in Karachi was now turned into a township of 15,000 quarters within five months, complete with schools, dispensaries, shops, transport, and post offices. Several housing projects in other parts of the country were taken up.

With regard to compensation for property left behind in India, the Government first collected details of the evacuee property left here by the Hindus, cleared legal bottlenecks in regard to those that were under authorised or unauthorised possession of individuals, and then proceeded with the execution of its plans. A country-wide settlement organisation was established, and within one year settlement schemes were drawn up, launched and completed. These consisted of transfer of houses and shops to persons in possession, transfer of industrial concerns, disposal of big mansions, transfer of houses, etc to claimants not in possession, and transfer of urban and rural agricultural land to claimants in satisfaction of their verified claims. As properties left here were far less than those left by Muslims in India, compensation had to be made to the extent of 40 per cent of the claims for the first 10 million, and 20 per cent for the subsequent ones. In some cases relief was also given in cash. Thus over 400,000 claims had been satisfactorily settled and most of the shelterless people provided for within eighteen months.

To check prices, controls were imposed, and the unwarranted demand for imported goods checked. Since excessive and unproductive expenditure in the past had created an impasse, the need now was to deal with it by balancing the budget. Austerity was adopted as a policy

and the easy course of fulfilling wants by printing currency notes was avoided. By checking the tide of money it became possible later to list price controls and controls on imports were relaxed in order not to hinder economic growth. Curtailment in government expenditure resulted in a definite improvement in the economy. The improvement in the balance of payments position, foreign exchange earnings and gold, dollar and sterling reserves was quick and sharp. Numerous other measures (dealt with in their respective chapters) helped to improve the economic position.

EBDO

To keep corrupt politicians out of the offices of responsibility two Orders, Public Offices Disqualification Order and Elective Bodies Disqualification Order, were promulgated. Under the latter (which was mainly an extension of the first) tribunals were set up in the provinces, each headed by a judge. They investigated cases of individuals having a record of corruption, and served them with notices requiring them either to voluntarily retire from public life for a period of six years or to vindicate themselves before the tribunal. Most of them chose to retire voluntarily. Their period of retirement ended in December, 1966.

Long-term Measures

For long term measures of reform, the new regime's method was to set up commissions of experts, give them terms of reference and ask them to draw up recommendations in given time after a thorough study of all the practical aspects of the questions and sounding of public opinion. Almost every major aspect of public life and administration came under such careful examination. The reports, always thorough and painstaking, were studied by the Government and assigned to relevant agencies for implementation. Some 30 such Commissions were set up in the first four years, and as a result widely ranging reforms were introduced in land holding and land tenure, administration, education, taxation, legal system, marriage and family laws, labour affairs, fiscal policy and other spheres.

Constitutional Development

That the Revolution was aimed at achieving rather than denying democratic government was early demonstrated. The Laws (Continuance in Force) Order, 1958, was issued which directed that pending the promulgation of a new Constitution 'Pakistan shall be governed as nearly as may be in accordance with the late Constitution. The Supreme Court and lower courts were reconstituted, and only special Martial Law Orders were exempted from their jurisdiction. The Special Military Courts formed to try infringement of regulations were wound up. The intention of ultimately restoring democracy was declared by President Ayub in his very first address to the nation.

In October 1959, the President issued the Basic Democracies Order. Under this, new local government institutions comprising representatives of the people elected by universal adult suffrage were established. At higher levels came closer co-operation between popular

representatives and public servants in nation-building departments.

The following year, the President sought from these directly elected representatives a vote of confidence and a mandate to draw up a new Constitution. The mandate obtained, he appointed a Constitution Commission headed by a judge of the Supreme Court.

The new Constitution was promulgated in March 1962. Elections to the central and provincial legislatures were held under it and Martial Law was declared lifted on May 8, 1962, the day the National Assembly met.

The next general elections were held in 1964-65. First, the 80,000 members of the Basic Democracies were elected on the basis of adult franchise; this was followed by the election of the President by the electoral college made up of these Basic Democrats; and finally came the election to the national and provincial legislatures by the same electoral college.

4. LAW

Constitutional Law. Government of India Act, 1935; Indian Independence Act, 1947; The First Constitution; The Present Constitution; Developments during 1965-66.

Civil Law. The Code of Civil Procedure; Statutes; Personal Laws.

Criminal Law. The Penal Code; The Code of Criminal Procedure; Trial by Elders.

Laws and Islamic Ideology. Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology: *Its Recommendations;* Islamic Research Institute: *Legal Encyclopaedia of Islam; Codification of Islamic Laws; Publications of* 1964-65; *Journals*; Adaptation and Publication of Laws; Translation of Laws.

CONSTITUTIONAL LAW

Government of India Act, 1935

Prior to independence Pakistan was governed as part of the sub-continent under the Government of *India* Act, 1935. That constitutional instrument contained provisions for the establishment of an all-India federation. The extent of the executive and legislative authority of the federation and the manner of administration of federal affairs were defined.

A council of ministers was set up to 'aid and advise' the governor-general in the exercise of his functions, excepting those matters that were left by the Act to be in his discretion. In matters lying within that large sphere of action in which the Governor-General had discretion he was responsible solely to the British government through its Secretary of State. Likewise, the *Indian* legislature was not a sovereign legislature and limitations on its powers were imposed by the Government of *India* Act, 1935. Under Sections 42 and 43 of that Act the Governor-General had the power to promulgate ordinances during emergency and during the recess of the Assembly, at any time.

The position in the provinces was similar to that at the Centre. The Governor of a province was the appointee of the British Government. He was also to have a council of ministers and in specified matters was to act in his discretion, subject to the control of the Governor-General. He had the power to promulgate ordinances during the recess of the Provincial Assembly with respect to provincial subjects at any time. Furthermore, if at any time he was satisfied that a situation had arisen in which the government of the province could not be carried on in accordance with the provisions of the Act he could, by proclamation, assume to himself all or any of the powers vested in or exercisable by any provincial body or authority.

The scheme underlying the Government of *India* Act being federal

in pattern, the Act had defined in List I of the Seventh Schedule matters with respect to which the federal legislature could make laws; in List II matters in respect of which the provincial legislature could make laws; and in List III, known as the Concurrent List, matters with respect to which both were competent to make laws.

The limitations imposed on the powers of the federal legislature by the Government of *India* Act, and the external control by Britain on the government, were removed by the *Indian* Independence Act of 1947 under which the independent dominion of Pakistan came into existence.

Indian Independence Act, 1947

The scheme of the *Indian* Independence Act, 1947 was to secure that the Constituent Assembly of the new dominion had untramelled legislative authority, including the making of a new Constitution; that the United Kingdom should have no authority to legislate for the dominion; that the government of the dominion would not be responsible to any external authority; and that no law made in the new dominion would be invalid for being in conflict with the existing or future laws of the United Kingdom. For seven years the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan functioned as the legislature of the new dominion without making any provision for the fresh elections, or its dissolution, or completing its task of framing a Constitution for the country.

Dissolution of the First Constituent Assembly

The Constituent Assembly was dissolved on 24th October, 1954 by a proclamation by the Governor-General of Pakistan.

Thereupon the Speaker of the Constituent Assembly moved the Chief Court of Sind for the issue of writs under Section 223-A of the Government of India Act, 1935 praying, *inter alia*, for his restoration to the office of Speaker on the ground that the Governor-General hd no authority to dissolve the Constituent Assembly or to dismiss him from office. The writs having been issued by the Chief Court of Sind, the Federation of Pakistan appealed against that decision to the Federal Court. The latter eventually recalled the writs on the ground that the constitutional amendment of the Constituent Assembly which had conferred the power for issuance of writs upon the Chief Court was invalid for want of assent of the Governor-General. Such assent was necessary for the validity of Acts of the Constituent Assembly.

This led to what might be termed as a constitutional impasse because a large body of the Acts of the Constituent Assembly had not received the assent of the Governor-General. Consequently, the Governor-General promulgated an Ordinance, called Emergency Powers Ordinance, providing that every constitutional law specified in a schedule to that Ordinance shall be deemed to have received the assent of the Governor-General from the specified date and to have had full force and effect from that date. But soon, while giving a ruling in a case *, the Federal Court held the Emergency Powers Ordinance

* In *Usuf Patel's* case (PLD 1955 F.C. 387).

as invalid on the ground that its promulgation amounted to constitutional legislation, and constitutional legislation could only be made by the Constituent Assembly with the subsequent assent of the Governor-General, and not by the Governor-General alone: the Governor-General could not be a substitute for the Constituent Assembly.

The Second Constituent Assembly

Accordingly, on 15th April, 1955 the Governor-General summoned by proclamation a new Assembly: it was to be known as the Constituent Convention, to be elected from the existing provincial legislatures, and its function was to make a Constitution. Upon a reference by the Governor-General*, the Federal Court answered that the new Constituent Convention would be competent to exercise all the powers conferred by the *Indian* Independence Act, 1947 on the Constituent Assembly, but that the new body should be Constituent Assembly instead of a Convention. This change was accordingly made.

The new Assembly passed the Establishment of West Pakistan Act, 1955 which merged the provinces in the West wing of the country into one unit. It also passed the Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan which received the Governor-General's assent on 2nd March, 1956.

The First Constitution

The salient features of the 1956 Constitution have been summarised as follows.†

General Features

In its general aspect, the 1956 Constitution was based on the pattern of the Government of India Act, 1935. It provided a Parliamentary form of Government, with a President elected by the members of the National Assembly and the two Provincial Assemblies and a Cabinet of Ministers headed by a Prime Minister to be appointed by the President.

The Executive

The Prime Minister was to be a person whom the President thought to be likely to command the confidence of the majority of the members of the National Assembly. The executive authority vested in the President but he was to act on the advice of the Prime Minister. The cabinet was to consist of Ministers who were all members of, and collectively responsible to, the National Assembly.

There were to be two provinces, East Pakistan and West Pakistan. In each province the executive authority vested in the Governor who was to be appointed by the President and occupied vis-a-vis the Chief Minister and the cabinet a position similar to that of the President.

Legislature

The National Assembly was to consist of 310 directly elected members, 150 from either province, and each Provincial Assembly

* PLD 1955 F.C. 435

† By Mohammad Munir, *Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan, 1965*

was to have 310 members similarly elected. Each of these Assemblies had a five-year term, but it could be dissolved earlier. There was an Election Commission, charged with the duty of preparing electoral rolls and conducting elections in accordance with law to be made by Parliament. The principle of adult suffrage was recognised in defining the right to vote.

"The legislative power was divided into three lists, the Federal, the Provincial and the Concurrent lists, and the division of executive authority followed closely the distribution of legislative power. Residuary powers were to vest in the provinces. Parliament had complete control over public revenue and finance.

Judiciary

The Supreme Court was the highest court of the country, having original jurisdiction in disputes between one Government and another, advisory jurisdiction in legal questions referred to it by the President, constitutional jurisdiction in cases involving interpretation of the Constitution, defined jurisdiction in criminal and civil matters, and special jurisdiction over all courts and tribunals other than courts-martial. Each province had a High Court which, apart from its ordinary appellate jurisdiction, had the power to issue directions to all statutory authorities and writs of prohibition, *mandamus*, *certiorari*, *quo warranto* and *habeas corpus*.

Fundamental Rights

Fundamental rights were enumerated and consisted of such rights as equal protection of the law, freedom of thought, speech, worship, assembly and vocation, etc.... To the extent that any existing or future law was found repugnant to such rights, it was to be considered as void. The rights were declared to be enforceable by proper proceedings taken before the High Court, the Supreme Court or any other court.

The Constitution of 1956, however, was found to be unworkable. It was not suited to the conditions of Pakistan, as was demonstrated by, among other things, the repeated break-down of central and provincial governments. So, eventually it had to be abrogated and martial law proclaimed in October, 1958.

The Present Constitution

The present Constitution came into force on 8th June, 1962, when the first meeting of the newly elected National Assembly was held, and martial law was withdrawn.

Problems and Prospects

President Ayub, in his article on the "Pakistan Perspective" published in the 'Foreign Affairs', July, 1960, had expressed the view that there are four prerequisites for the success of any democratic system in a country like Pakistan, viz.,

(1) It should be simple to understand, easy to work and cheap to sustain.

(2) It should put to the voter only such questions as he can

answer in the light of his own personal knowledge and understanding without external prompting.

(3) It would ensure the effective participation of all citizens in the affairs of the country up to the level of their mental horizon and intellectual calibre.

(4) It should be able to produce reasonably strong and stable governments.

The present Constitution has been devised in the context of these prerequisites. It attempts to enunciate a system which appears the most effective form of democracy in the conditions obtaining in this country at present.

But no Constitution, by itself, can ever work a system. Its success would depend on the attitudes and actions of the people in general and the intelligentsia in particular. It would require in them a firm belief in a democratic form of government, respect and regard for the views and ideas of others, habits of tolerance and moderation, regard for the conventions of constitutional government and, above all, a fundamental interest in the welfare of the people. While the Constitution would provide the institutional framework, it is earnestly hoped that the people would lend it substance in the same spirit of dedication, devotion and courage which had characterised their struggle for the establishment of Pakistan.

The Electoral College

The basic structure upon which the government under the present Constitution rests is an electoral college consisting of 80,000 members, forty thousand in each province. The members of the electoral college are elected on the basis of adult franchise, and they, in their turn, elect the President, the members of the National Assembly and members of the Provincial Assemblies of their respective provinces and have the exclusive right to vote at a referendum that may be held under the Constitution. Besides their duties as electors, the members of the electoral college have to perform functions relating to local government and development, and such others as may be delegated to them.

The President and His Powers

The President, who must be a Muslim, is elected for a period of five years, but he is eligible for re-election. If a person is and has been for a continuous period of more than eight years holding office as President, he cannot seek further election unless a majority of the members of the National Assembly and the two Provincial Assemblies approve his candidature. Not more than three persons, sitting President excepted, to be selected at a joint sitting of the three Assemblies, may seek election to the office of president. The President is the supreme commander of the defence services, and the executive authority of the Republic vests in him. He may have a council of ministers, composed of persons who are qualified to be, but are not, members of the National Assembly, to assist him in the discharge of his functions. When the National Assembly is not in ses-

sion, he may promulgate ordinances; and, in a state of emergency, to be formally proclaimed by him, he acquires the power to promulgate ordinances whether the National Assembly be in session or not. He may dissolve the National Assembly before the expiry of its term but in that event he himself ceases to hold office and must seek re-election. Appointments to the civil services of the Centre are made by the President, and the persons appointed, subject to certain safeguards laid down by rules or laws against dismissal, removal and reduction in rank, hold office during his pleasure. As supreme commander of the defence services, the President grants commissions in, and appoints chief commanders of, those services. His assent is necessary to the bills passed by the National Assembly and he can, if a bill be not readily acceptable to him, require a majority of two-thirds of the total number of members of the Assembly before he gives his assent to it or directs a referendum over it. Except on items relating to 'new expenditure', the Budget, as directed by the President to be presented to the National Assembly, is not subject to the vote of the Assembly.

Removal of the President

The President is liable to be removed for any wilful violation of the Constitution, gross misconduct, or physical or mental incapacity if a notice of resolution for that purpose is given to the Speaker by not less than one-third of the total number of members of the National Assembly, and if the resolution for his removal is supported by three-fourths of the total number of members of that Assembly. But, if at least one-half of such members do not vote for the resolution, those members who give notice of the resolution lose their seats in the Assembly.

The Governors

In each province, the executive authority vests in the Governor who is appointed by, holds office during the pleasure of, and functions under the directions of, the President. The Governor may also have a council of ministers composed of persons who are qualified to be, but are not, members of the Provincial Assembly, and whose appointments are approved by the President. They hold office during the pleasure of the Governor, subject to the concurrence of the President. The Governor's assent, like that of the President to central bills, is necessary to bills passed by the Provincial Assembly. In financial and other matters, a Governor's position in the province is generally similar to that of the President at the centre.

Executive Jurisdiction

The executive authority of the Republic extends to all matters in respect of which the central legislature has power to make laws. In the same manner the executive authority of a province extends to all matters in respect of which the provincial legislature is competent to legislate.

The Legislature

The central legislature consists of the President of the country and one House, known as the National Assembly. Similarly the provincial

legislature consists of the Governor of the province and the Provincial Assembly. The National Assembly has 156 members and the Provincial Assembly 155. The members of the National Assembly are elected equally from the two provinces, with three of the seats for each province reserved exclusively for women. In the Provincial Assembly five seats are reserved for women. Women are, however, eligible for election to any other seats as well. Unless sooner dissolved, the duration of each Assembly is for five years. The National Assembly is summoned and prorogued by the President and the Provincial Assemblies by the governors. The respective speakers of the Assemblies may also, on the request of one-third or more of the total members of the Assembly, summon the Assembly. In that case the speaker may prorogue it.

Legislative powers are distributed between the Centre and the provinces. The central legislature has the exclusive power to legislate on matters specified in the Third Schedule and the provincial legislatures on all other matters.

In its winter session of 1966, the National Assembly passed its rules of procedure.

The Judiciary

The Supreme Court, with a chief justice and as many judges as may be determined by law, and, in the absence of such law, by the President, is the court of ultimate jurisdiction in the country. Besides its being the final court of appeal, it has advisory and constitutional jurisdiction. It also has original jurisdiction which is confined to inter-government disputes, and jurisdiction to grant leave to appeal against the decisions of the High Courts.

Amending the Constitution

There is provision for amendment of the Constitution. An amending bill can be presented to the President if it is passed by two-thirds of the total number of members of the National Assembly. The President may withhold his assent to the bill so passed or return it for reconsideration. If assent is withheld, the Assembly may reconsider the bill and again present it to the President for assent if it now has the support of three-fourths of the total number of members. If the bill is returned for reconsideration and it is passed by the Assembly by a two-thirds majority of the total number of members without any amendment or without the amendments suggested by the President, it may be presented again to the President who may, if the bill be still not acceptable to him, direct a referendum on it.

Constitutional Amendments

So far the Constitution has been amended by seven amending Acts. *The first* amendment has made the fundamental rights justiciable. *The second* has introduced changes in the order in which the election to the office of the President and the election of the members of the National Assembly were to be held. *The third* relates to the qualifications of members of the National Assembly. *The fourth* deals with the holding of office of profit by the judges, and empowers the President and the Governors to direct the retirement of civil servants upon

completion of 25 years of service or fifty-five years of age. *The fifth* amendment has authorised the suspension of Fundamental Rights while a proclamation of emergency is in force. *The sixth* has re-fixed the age of retirement of civil servants at fifty-five years, subject to re-employment or extension of service. This Act also empowers a change in the principle of taxation by the levy of taxes on productive capacities instead of on the products themselves, for the better utilization of the existing industrial capacity in the country. *The seventh* amendment has empowered the Assembly to introduce amendments in the ordinances promulgated by the President.

Developments during 1965-66

The third, fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh amendments to the Constitution described above were carried out during 1965 — 1966. Apart from these amendments the main constitutional event of the period was the Proclamation of Emergency under Article 30 of the Constitution issued by the President on 6th September, 1965, the day on which Indian forces attacked Pakistan across her international frontier near Lahore. Pursuant to the Proclamation of Emergency, which is still in force, various Ordinances and Orders were issued, including the Defence of Pakistan Ordinance and the rules made thereunder.

Many important cases were decided during the year on constitutional matters. In *Government of Pakistan* v. *Akhlaque Hussain*, the validity of the Legal Practitioner's (*Disqualification*) Ordinance (11 of 1964) was called in question. It was held that the disqualification was neither unreasonable nor violative of the Fundamental Rights of citizens. In *University of Dacca* v. *Zakir Ahmed*, it was held that there was an implied duty to follow the rule of natural justice, i.e. the right to be heard in the absence of any positive provision to the contrary in a statute.

Legislation: Central Acts

Twelve central Acts were put on the statute book during 1965-66. The most important among these were the Unani, Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Practitioners' Act, 1965 which provides for the regulation, disqualification and registration of practitioners of medicine belonging to these systems and the Legal Practitioners and Bar Councils Act, 1965 which amends and consolidates the law relating to legal practitioners and provides for the constitution of bar councils as a system of internal supervision.

Central Ordinances

During 1965-66, twenty-nine ordinances were promulgated. These included ordinances regarding the elections to the Assemblies, the operations of the National Investment (Unit) Trust, the setting up of an Atomic Energy Commission, and ordinances arising out of the emergency, such as ordinances on war risks and detention of enemy ships, aircraft and goods.

CIVIL LAW

The Code of Civil Procedure

Except in the case of matters which are reserved for special tribunals, such as taxation, labour laws, etc., the procedure of the civil courts is governed by the Code of Civil Procedure, 1908. This Code governs the manner of the institution of suits, the service of summonses, the settlement of issues, the form of decrees, and the execution of decrees. The Civil Procedure Code also provides for interlocutory matters during the suit, such as the issue of injunctions, attachment before judgement, and the appointment of 'receivers'.

Statutes

The laws relating to evidence, contract, partnership, sale of goods, arbitration, carriage of goods by sea, insurance companies, limitation, transfer of property, negotiable instruments, trade-marks and specific relief, are to be found in statutes which were already part and parcel of the law of British India and have been adapted to Pakistan. These laws are generally based on the principles of English Common Law and Statute.

Personal Laws

In the sphere of matters like succession, marriage, divorce and endowments, individuals are governed by their respective personal laws as provided by the religious order to which they belong. A Muslim would be governed by the principles of Muslim law, a Hindu by the principles of Hindu law, and so on.

But even in the sphere of personal law there has been legislation from time to time. The most important amongst these was the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance (1960). It provides for a systematic registration of marriages, and prescribes a procedure for notice, arbitration and conciliation in matters of divorce, which was previously a unilateral act of will. Similarly there are statute laws regarding succession, marriage etc., for the Christians. Where statute law is in conflict with personal law the former prevails.

CRIMINAL LAW

The general criminal law of Pakistan is codified in two major enactments—the Pakistan Penal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure. The former is the substantive law and the latter the adjective law. These statutes came into force in 1860 and 1898 respectively, replacing the general principles of Muslim Criminal Law which, based on the Quran and developed by Muslim jurists, was being administered by the courts ever since the inception of Mughal rule.

The Penal Code

The Penal Code sets out, with great precision and in detail, every aspect of criminal liability in respect of a variety of offences. An act constitutes a crime only if it comes within the ambit of one or more of the definitions or descriptions given in the code.

Chapter IV of the Code sets out 'general exceptions' to criminal liability, and lays down the conditions and circumstances under which an act, which is otherwise criminal under a particular provision of the code or any other provision of any special law, is excepted from being an offence according to any of the general exceptions. For example, the act of a child under seven years of age, or an act in exercise of the right of self-defence, is not an offence.

A fundamental distinction is drawn in the five sections on homicide, between murder in the first degree and second degree. The distinction hinges, in the main, on whether the act was the direct outcome of 'grave and sudden provocation', and the courts have over the century developed connotations of the phrase by applying it in the light of local conditions and sentiments in a large variety of cases which came before them for adjudication. In a case *where a father suspected that his daughter had gone out with a neighbour's son and went out to look for them and finding them in a field in a compromising position killed them both with a hatchet, it was held by the High Court that although the provocation was sought by the accused and could not normally be a ground for mitigation, yet, in view of the sentiments of the people and the questions of 'honour' involved, the provocation was to be deemed to be of a kind which would bring the act into the lesser category, and in appeal the Supreme Court refused to interfere on the same grounds. There are many such cases in which the courts have given effect to the peculiar moral tone and social conscience of the people, evolving, thereby, a law of the land within the larger ambit of internationally accepted principles of criminal justice.

The Code of Criminal Procedure

Appeals

Jurisdictions

The Code of Criminal Procedure creates a magistracy headed by a district magistrate in each district and prescribes the limits of police authority and its manner of functioning. Appeals from the orders of conviction and appealable sentences passed by the magistrate lie to the Court of Session in case of convictions to four years or less. An appeal lies to the High Court in other cases, and a further appeal to the Supreme Court on a point of law by special leave. Some magistrates are specially empowered under Section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code to impose any sentence except of death, and imprisonment exceeding seven years; they may thus try all offences not punishable with death.

Mode of Evidence

Rules prescribing the admissibility, exclusion, and the relative weight to be ascribed to various kinds of evidence are contained in the Evidence Act, 1872. This Evidence Act follows the principles of

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*Cited by the Chief Justice of Pakistan in a paper read at the Third Commonwealth and Empire Law Conference at Sydney (Australia) in 1965. See PLD, 1965 (Journal), p. 115

the English Law of Evidence, reducing them to the form of express propositions arranged in their natural order, with some modifications rendered necessary by the local conditions and circumstances. The intention of the Act is, firstly, to allow for the admission of such evidence only in the course of a trial as may be strictly relevant to the matters at issue; secondly, to bind the court to a ratiocinative process which minimises the possibility of personal opinion, subjective suspicion and temperamental bias of a judge supervening in his verdict; and, thirdly, to protect the accused from the vagaries of an overzealous prosecution—through such maxims as that, a man shall stand innocent until proved guilty, and that the commission of crime must be proved beyond all reasonable doubt.

It is partly because of such principles of procedure that the number of convictions has always remained very small. In 1957, for instance, only 22 per cent of the people brought to trial were actually convicted.

Trial by Elders

In West Pakistan, under certain circumstances, there is also the provision for *jirga* trials. A *jirga* is constituted by the commissioner out of the notable and respectable elders of a community and is presided over by an experienced magistrate. It is not bound by rules of evidence and the Code of Criminal Procedure and is empowered to impose any sentence short of death and transportation for life. The commissioner of an administrative division has the discretionary power to refer the trial of certain specified heinous offences to the *jirga* if he deems it inexpedient in the interest of justice that such offences should be tried by the ordinary courts of law. But it has been laid down by the High Court in 1965 that where several offences are committed in the same transaction and some only are triable by a *jirga* the commissioner has no power to refer those to a *jirga* while the others are tried by the ordinary courts.* However, the police may, in such a case, drop the prosecution in ordinary courts for non-referable offences and refer the remaining ones to the *jirga* tribunal.†

LAWS AND ISLAMIC IDEOLOGY

The 'Principles of Policy' laid down by the Constitution require, among other things, that no law should be made that is repugnant to the requirements and teachings of Islam, and that the existing laws should be brought in conformity with them. It is also required that the Muslims of the country should be enabled 'to order their lives in accordance with the fundamental principles and basic concepts of Islam, and should be provided facilities whereby they may be enabled to understand the meaning of life according to those principles and

*In *Khizar Hayat* v. *Commissioner, Sargodha Division*, PLD, 1965, Lahore, p. 349.

†*Mohammad* v. *Commissioner, Sargodha Division*, 1965, ibid p. 692.

concepts'. The initial steps taken by government in pursuance of this included the setting up of an Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology and an Islamic Research Institute.

Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology

The Advisory Council of Islamic Ideology is entrusted with the tasks of: (1) making recommendations as to the means of enabling and encouraging the Muslims of Pakistan to order their lives in accordance with the principles and concepts of Islam; (2) examining all laws in force immediately before the commencement of the Constitution (First Amendment) Act, 1963, with a view to making recommendations for bringing them in conformity with the provisions of the Holy Quran and *Sunnah*; and (3) advising the authorised referring authorities on particular references, i.e. whether a proposed law is or is not repugnant to the teachings and requirements of Islam as set out in the Holy Quran and *Sunnah*.

Recommendations

The Council has, in discharge of its first function, made the following recommendations.

(1) Establishment of a Religious Affairs Authority with a view to implementing Islamic values in every day life and revitalising Islamic institutions.
(2) Ban on alcoholic drinks in official and private functions.
(3) Ban on fixation and continuation of meetings, functions, etc. at the time of prayers.
(4) Ban on arrangement of lunches and teas in official and public functions on days of fasting.
(5) Adoption of a uniform policy for curbing obscenity in all publicity media, such as films and literature.
(6) Punishment for adulteration of food.
(7) Punishment for kidnapping of children.
(8) Punishment for traffic offences.
(9) Punishment for smuggling.
(10) Censor boards for scrutinising imported foreign literature relating to the religion of Islam and the life of the Holy Prophet.
(11) Adoption of a uniform pattern for public schools to suit the ideological requirements of the nation.

Researches with respect to the Criminal Procedure Code, the Evidence Act and other Acts included in the first two volumes of the Unrepealed Central Acts have been completed by the Council, and its recommendations in respect of them are to be made.

Islamic Research Institute

The function of the Islamic Research Institute under Article 207 of the Constitution is 'to undertake Islamic research and instruction for the purpose of assisting in the reconstruction of Muslim society on a truly Islamic basis'. Among the areas selected for research, special emphasis is being laid on Islamic history and philosophy to demonstrate

the contributions Islam has made to the enrichment of human thought and culture.

Publication of Works of Muslim Scholars

Another important aspect of the academic activities of the Institute is to edit and publish translations of the hitherto unpublished works of great Muslim scholars of the past. The idea is to acquaint the Muslims of Pakistan, in particular with those literary works of great scholars of the past which have exerted an enduring influence on the intellectual and religious development of the Muslim community. A big publication programme of translations from Arabic into the national languages is to be undertaken by the Bureau of Editing and Translation of the Institute. It has already collected manuscripts which will be preserved in microfilm.

Legal Encyclopaedia of Islam

The Institute has undertaken the compilation of a *Legal Encyclopaedia of Islam* on the pattern of Halsbury's *Laws of England*. This will be a work of law, legal history and jurisprudence. Some 214 topics have been selected and experts have started work on them. A work on Muslim jurisprudence is envisaged separately, particularly to cater to the needs of students of Islamic Law.

Codification of Islamic Laws

The Institute has undertaken codification of Islamic Laws in Urdu with a commentary. This work will be the first of its kind in the sub-continent. The first volume, covering laws of marriage, dower and maintenance has already been published.

Publications of 1964-65

The normal publication routine of the Institute is strictly of an academic nature in which every effort is made to maintain internationally recognised standards of scholarship. During 1964-65, six books were published: *Rasa'il Qushairiyyah*, *Islamic Methodology in History*, *Quranic Concept of History*, *Ijma aur Bab-i-Ijtehad* (*Urdu*), *Taqwim-i-Tarikhi* (*Urdu*), and *Majmoo-e-Qawaneen* (*Urdu*). In addition, some ten manuscripts have been completed and are being printed.

Journals

For wider dissemination and diffusion of information on Islamic matters the Institute undertook to publish three monthlies in the three major languages, viz., *Ummah* (English), *Fikro Nazar* (Urdu) and *Sandhan* (Bengali). The English magazine has recently ceased publication. For the Muslims of the Middle East the Institute has started bringing out a quarterly called *Al-Dirasat A-Islamiyyah*, which has now been through two issues.

The English quarterly of the Institute, *Islamic Studies*, is now in its fourth year of publication.

Adaptation and Publication of Laws

The work of adaptation of Laws was taken up by the Law Division in pursuance of article 225(4) of the Constitution. The Adaptation Order relating to unrepealed Central Acts and Ordinances, contained in 15 volumes of the Central Statute Book, was ultimately issued in

1964.

Apart from the completion of the work of adaptation of laws, the publication of a completely up-to-date and corrected edition of the entire statute law has also been undertaken. The manuscript embodying the laws with up-to-date corrections is complete and is now being printed. The name given to the collection of statutes is "The Pakistan Code" in place of the previous nomenclature. Three volumes of this Code have already been published.

Translation of Laws

In the Law Division, two new cells have been set up for translating the most important laws into Urdu and Bengali, the national languages of Pakistan, so as to bring home their meaning to the citizen in his own language. Translations have already been made of the Constitution of Pakistan, the Electoral Laws, the Defence of Pakistan Rules, the Bar Councils Act, and a large number of statutory rules. These translations are available as official publications. The translation of another major law, namely the Sea Customs Act, has been completed, and of the Pakistan Penal Code is almost complete.

5. GOVERNMENT

The Chief Executive. The President; The President as Head of the Policy-making Bodies: *The Governors' Conference; The Cabinet; The National Economic Council.*

Central Secretariat. Organisation; Ministries and Departments, and their functions.

The Civil Service. The Superior Services; Classes of Public Servants; The Judicial Branch of the Civil Service; Recruitment; Terms and Conditions of Service; Training.

Provincial Governments. The Executive; The Provincial Powers; Administrative Divisions.

Local Government: Basic Democracies. Structure and Organisation; Training; Functions; Finances; Recent Activities.

General Election 1964-65. Election to Electoral College; Presidential Election: *Manifestos; Campaigns; Results;* National Assembly Election; Provincial Assembly Election.

THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE

The present Government of Pakistan is headed by President Mohammad Ayub Khan. The President came to power when in a peaceful Revolution in October 1958 he had to take over government from the then President, Mr. Iskander Mirza. Subsequently, in February 1960, he was given a popular vote of confidence, and a mandate to draw up a new Constitution for the country.

The country's first general election was held in 1964-65 under the new Constitution promulgated in 1962. In a keenly contested election, the President was re-elected to presidentship for another five-year term.

The President is assisted by a Council of eleven Ministers. He also has a Chief Scientific Adviser.

The President presides over all the national policy-making bodies, namely, the Governors' Conference (which includes the two Governors of the provinces and members of the central Cabinet); the National Economic Council (which includes, in addition to the Governors, central and provincial Ministers with economic portfolios); the central Cabinet; and the central Planning Commission.

The President is also Head of the majority party, the Muslim League.

THE CENTRAL SECRETARIAT

There is a Central secretariat which implements the laws of the central legislature, the orders and decisions of the Supreme Court, and the policies of the central executive.

ORGANISATION

The central secretariat is divided into two sections: the ministries of the central Government and the President's Secretariat. Every ministry is headed by a minister and a secretary to the government. A ministry may consist of one or more divisions.

The basic unit of secretariat organisation is a division. Divisions are grouped to form ministries. They are not unchangeable, and have grown in number after independence. The divisions have under them various attached departments and subordinate offices. Divisions make administrative and political policies relating to departments; and all departments must approach the central cabinet through the divisions concerned. Each division is headed by a secretary who works directly under the President in the case of the President's Secretariat, and under the respective ministers in the other cases. Occasionally a division may be headed by a joint secretary.

Attached departments vary greatly in size, importance, and powers. There are attached departments which are headed by officials having the status of a full secretary and others headed by officials equal in rank to a deputy secretary. Although the status varies, a typical attached department is likely to have at its head a director-general or a chief administrator. They have considerable freedom of action and adequate financial powers.

Subordinate offices work under the control of the respective ministries and have been set up for executing their policies. Matters of personnel administration, fixation of pay, increments, transfers, promotions and financial sanctions are controlled by the ministry. Subordinate offices are usually headed by officers of the rank and status lower than that of the secretary to the government.

In addition to the attached departments and subordinate offices, government has created a number of corporations to undertake sensitive commercial operations (as oil and gas), or to step in where private enterprise has been shy (as house building), or to step up an activity which did not show required promise within the government departments (as water and power). There are also organisations wholly or partly financed by government, having representatives of government operating through a board of directors, which is independent of the control of government in all matters relating to personnel administration and financial control but is guided by the government in relation to its policies.

President's Secretariat

The President's Secretariat consists of three Divisions: Planning; Economic Affairs; States and Frontier Regions.

Planning Division

The Planning Division is assigned the work of assessing the material and human resources of the country, formulating national plans and programmes, making overall evaluation of the progress achieved, and maintaining data for the purpose of foreign aid negotiations.

Economic Affairs Division

The Economic Affairs Division deals with assessment of economic requirements and negotiations for securing economic and technological assistance from foreign governments and organisations; with economic matters pertaining to the ECOSOC, ECAFE, CENTO, SEATO, Commonwealth liaison and economic committees; with collection, compilation and publication of statistical data concerning trade prices, industrial statistics, national income, social statistics, etc. The Central Statistical Office is a subordinate body under this Division. Headed by a Director-General, it collects, collates and publishes data of national importance. It issues *ad hoc* publications in addition to a few periodicals.

Central Statistical Office

States and Frontier Division

The States and Frontier Regions Division is primarily responsible for political and military control and administration of Pakistan's north-west tribal areas.

Cabinet Secretariat

Under the Cabinet Secretariat there are two Divisions: Cabinet and Establishment.

Cabinet Division

The Cabinet Division is entrusted with all secretariat work of the Cabinet, its committees and the Governors' Conference, and it watches implementation of their decisions. The Central Intelligence Bureau is under this Division.

Intelligence Bureau

Establishment Division

The Establishment Division exists for the regulation of all matters of general applicability to all services, recruitment to superior services, administration of the all-Pakistan and other central secretariat services, in-service training of public servants, civil awards and staff welfare. This Division has an O & M Wing which reviews the organisation and procedure methods of government offices on a continuing basis with a view to effecting improvements therein.

Ministry of Defence

The Ministry of Defence is responsible for the policies relating to the defence of Pakistan and to each part thereof, including defence services and defence products. The Departments of Civil Aviation, Tourism, Cyphers and Meteorology are under this Ministry, and also a number of other organisations concerned with defence productions and management, such as the Ordnance Factory at Wah.

Civil Aviation, Tourism, Cyphers and Meteorological Deptts.

Ministry of Foreign Affairs

The primary function of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs is to maintain dealings with foreign countries. It is the responsibility

Cypher Traffic

of this Ministry to make appointments to all diplomatic posts, arrange visits of foreign dignitaries and tours of the President in foreign countries. The Ministry also deals with the security operation of cypher traffic.

Ministry of Finance

Board of Revenue

State Bank of Pakistan

The Autonomous Bodies

The Ministry of Finance controls the finances of the central government and financial matters affecting the country, controls audit and accounts service, currency, and government's taxation policy. It is responsible for the preparation of the annual budget to be laid before the Assembly. The Central Board of Revenue is an attached department of this Ministry. Besides the State Bank of Pakistan, autonomous bodies like the National Bank of Pakistan, PICIC, Pakistan Printing and the House Building Finance Corporations are controlled by this Ministry.

Home Affairs Division

Directorates of Civil Defence, Immigration & Passports

The Home Affairs Division is concerned with the maintenance of internal public security matters arising out of dealings and agreements with other countries and organisations. The Directorate of Civil Defence and Directorate of Immigration and Passports are under this Ministry.

Kashmir Affairs Division

The Kashmir Affairs Division looks after the affairs of Azad Kashmir through a Chief Adviser to Azad Kashmir Government who is resident in Gilgit and Baltistan.

Home Affairs and Kashmir Affairs Divisions together form one Ministry.

Industries Division

The Industries Division deals with industrial planning and coordination; with industrial statistics on a national basis; promotion of foreign investments in industrial enterprises; central agencies and institutions for industrial research and productivity. The Pakistan Standards Institution, Industrial Technical Assistance Centre, Departments of Stationery and Printing, Explosives, Government of Pakistan Press, the Directorate of Investment Promotion and Supplies, Central Testing Laboratories, the Patent Office, the Investment Advisory Centre and the Pakistan Investment Corporation are under this Division.

Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre

The Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre set up in 1957 broadly aims at: training and upgrading the skills of industrial personnel in technical and management fields; disseminating modern technical know-how through seminars, group discussions, demonstrations, publications, film shows; extending advisory services to industrial organisations and industries; and introducing modern manufacturing techniques and production methods along with the production of newly designed tools and products.

Central Testing Laboratories

The Central Testing Laboratories are mainly concerned with the scientific assessment of industrial raw materials, finished products and exportable commodities. They also provide valuable scientific guidance to government purchases and inspection departments, indigenous industries and commercial enterprises.

Pakistan Standards Institution

The Pakistan Standards Institution is engaged in the promotion of trade, commerce and industries on scientific lines by popularising voluntary adoption of accepted standards.

Patent Office

The Patent Office grants patents for new invention in various fields of engineering, technology and science and registers new industrial designs.

Investment Advisory Centre

The main function of the Investment Advisory Centre is to deal withe pre-investment problems. Besides it encourages optimum effectiveness in the use of local capital and ensures sound programming of long range development programmes. The Centre also renders technical assistance and advice to PICIC, IDBP and the Department of Investment Promotion and Supplies in the analysis and appraisal of loan applications.

Natural Resources Division

Oil and Gas Corporation

The Natural Resources Division is responsible for extraction of oil and natural gas available within the country, in international aspects of matters relating to oil, gas, power, mineral and water resources, and the Indus Basin works. The Oil and Gas Corporation, which is an autonomous body, is engaged in the extraction and development of this natural wealth.

Geological Survey of Pakistan

Geological and topographical maps and surveys for all purposes are prepared and maintained by the Geological Survey Organisation of this Division.

Food and Agriculture Division

Attached Departments and Autonomous Bodies

Food and Agriculture Division is responsible for economic co-ordination and planning in respect of food, agriculture, animal husbandry, forestry, fisheries and co-operation, Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, plant quarantine, agricultural census, survey of Pakistan and zoological research. The Central Cotton and Jute Committees, the Institute of Cotton Research and Technology, the Department of Marketing Intelligence and Agricultural Statistics, the Department of Plant Quarantine and Locust Warning and Zoological Survey, Marine Fisheries Department, and also the Food and Agriculture Council are under this Division.

Rehabilitation and Works Division

The Rehabilitation and Works Division deals with the Capital Development Authority (which is constructing Islamabad), Pakistan Public Works Department and Estate Offices at Karachi and Rawalpindi.

The two Divisions: Food & Agriculture, and Rehabilitation and Works are at present grouped as one Ministry.

Ministry of Commerce

Export Promotion Bureau

Jute and Cotton Boards

Tariff Commission

The Ministry of Commerce controls trade and commerce between provinces and with other countries and governments, and the commercial and tariff policies. The Export Promotion Bureau has been set up for expansion of trade abroad. Jute and Cotton Boards are engaged in research for increased production and alternative uses of these two main cash crops of Pakistan. The Tariff Commission has been set up for marshalling government's tariff policy. The Department of Insurance and Pakistan Insurance Corporation, an autonomous body, are under this Ministry for promoting insurance industry in Pakistan.

Scientific and Technological Division

The work of Pakistan Atomic Energy Commission, Pakistan Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the National Science Council, all autonomous bodies, and the Department of Scientific and Industrial Research is co-ordinated by the Scientific and Technological Research Division. This Division has recently been transferred from the President's Secretariat to the Ministry of Commerce.

Ministry of Education

Autonomous Bodies

The Ministry of Education is responsible for development of educational and cultural institutions in Pakistan, and to watch over the implementation of educational reforms. The Ministry has also to take measures for promotion of cultural relations with foreign countries and also arrange overseas studies and scholarships. There are as many as seven autonomous bodies under this Ministry, namely, Pakistan Sports Control Board, Pakistan Inter-University Board, Iqbal Academy, National Book Centre and Central Boards for Development of Bengali and Urdu, located at Dacca and Lahore respectively.

Department of Archaeology and Museums

Directorate of Archives and Libraries

Central Bureau of Education

The Department of Archaeology and Museums is an attached department of this Ministry and is responsible for exploration, excavation and preservation of the archaeological and historical remains of the past. The Directorate of Archives and Libraries is a subordinate body for collection, preservation and maintenance of national records and archives for research and reference. The Central Bureau of Education is also under this Ministry. It collects and disseminates educational statistics and information.

Ministry of Information and Broadcasting

Films and Publication

Press Information

The Ministry of Information and Broadcasting is responsible for dissemination of information at home and abroad. It looks after national broadcasting, production of films, including newsreels and documentaries, compulsory screening of films, press relations, development of newspaper industry and placement of government advertisements. The Department of Films and Publications is the organ of this Ministry for producing films and literature for internal and external publicity. The Press Information Department is the main channel of news communication between government and the national

Bureau of National Research and Reference; Radio Pakistan; Central Board of Films Censor; Pakistan Council of National Integration

press. The Bureau of National Research and Reference collects reference material on topics of national interest, and carries out researches on topical issues. The Directorate-General of Radio Pakistan, Tribal Publicity Department and the Central Board of Films Censors are other organs of this Ministry. The Pakistan Council of National Integration is an autonomous body devoted to dissemination of knowledge and cultural understanding among people.

Ministry of Communications

Post, Telephones and Telegraphs

The Ministry of Communications is responsible for development of the country's transport system, for the postal and telecommunications system, navigation and shipping, and hajj and pilgrimage to holy places.* There are three autonomous bodies: Chittagong Port Trust, Karachi Port Trust, and the National Shipping Corporation, the latter newly set up for developing the country's inter-wing and external trade and commerce. The Department of Shipping Control, Pakistan Post Offices, and Paktisan Telephones and Telegraphs are also under this Ministry.

Law Division

The Ministry of Law and Parliamentary Affairs comprises two Divisions: Law and Parliamentary Affairs. The Law Division's functions are to advise government on all legal and constitutional questions arising out of any case and on interpretation of any law; it also advises provincial governments on legal and legislative matters; drafts, scrutinizes and examines bills, ordinances and all legal and other instruments, dealings and agreements with other countries and international organisations in judicial and legal matters; it also performs the central government functions in regard to the Supreme Court and High Courts.

Institute of Islamic Research

The Central Institute of Islamic Research, an autonomous body under this Division, was established in 1960 in Karachi to carry out research in the contribution of Islam to thought, science and culture. The Institute has since been shifted to Rawalpindi.

Parliamentary Affairs Division

Election Commission

The Parliamentary Affairs Division is entrusted with the following duties: summoning of the National Assembly and its prorogation and, on conclusion of each session, co-ordination of legislative business and parliamentary activities and ensuring implementation of the assurances, promises and undertakings given by government on the floor of the House. It deals with the Election Commission which conducts elections, and with the Islamic Advisory Council.

Islamic Advisory Council

The Islamic Advisory Council was set up in 1962 (as required under article 199 of the Constitution) in order to reconstruct Muslim society on a truly Islamic basis and to examine all laws in force in the

*Subjects relating to shipping and Ports, including Hajj and pilgrimage to holy places were transferred to Defence Ministry on January 2, 1967.

country with a view to bringing them into conformity with the teachings and requirements of Islam as set out in the Holy Quran and Sunnah.

Health Division

Directorates of Family Planning and Health, Education, Establishment and Stores, Malaria Eradication, Seamen's Welfare T.B. Centre, Nutrition and Research. Autonomous Bodies

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare consists of two Divisions: Health and Labour and Social Welfare. The Health Division of the Ministry is concerned, apart from maintaining national health services, with dealings and agreements with foreign countries and organisations in the fields of medicine and health, with medical research, medical and health services for central government employees, the medical service personnel, Red Cross Society, and Tuberculosis Association. There are six Directorates: the Directorate of Family Planning and Health Education, Directorate of Central Health Establishments and Stores, Directorate of Malaria Eradication, Directorate of Tuberculosis Centres, Directorate of Seamen's Welfare and the Directorate of Nutrition and Research. Besides these full government departments, there are four autonomous bodies under this Division, viz. Nursing Council of Pakistan, Central Malaria Eradication Board, Pakistan Medical Research Council and Pakistan Medical Council.

Labour and Social Welfare Division

The Labour and Social Welfare Division deals with national manpower problems, pursues national policy regarding resettlement and employment of demobilised service personnel, registration of essential personnel under the Essential Personnel (Registration) Ordinance, 1948, Employment Act, 1952, Employee's Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962 and war injuries compensation insurance. The Division also deals with labour research and maintains constant association with international organisations in the field of labour and social welfare.

National Manpower Council

The Government has also set up a National Manpower Council for evolving and implementing policies and programmes for the development and utilisation of human resources.

CIVIL SERVICE

The *Indian* Civil Service of the pre-independence subcontinent, from which the original personnel of the Pakistan Civil Service was drawn, was an efficient instrument of public administration. The British had drawn to it some of the best talents of Indo-Pakistan providing them with attractive emoluments, security of service, power and prestige.

With the departure of the British in 1947, both Pakistan and India had to depend solely on this Service for running the administration. In Pakistan the hundred or so officers that came to its share were required to build up the administration from the bottom. A spirit of service to the people was demanded of them in the new set up and they had to reorient themselves from a law and order to a developmental role. They were asked to act with strict impartiality and keep

themselves away from politics. Whatever the political party in power, their job was to give expert advice with a view to the people's good and to carry out whatever decisions were reached. The administration could become an agency of a welfare state only through a rigid adherence to the new conception of duty.

By and large, the civil service in Pakistan, through all these hectic years, played its part thus defined.

Superior Services

The Central Superior Services consist of the All Pakistan Services and the Central Services. The All Pakistan Services are the C.S.P. (Civil Services of Pakistan) and the P.S.P. (Police Service of Pakistan). They are so called because they are meant to serve both the provincial and the central governments. The Pakistan Foreign Service and the Civil Service of Pakistan rank as the two senior-most Services. Some of the other Central Superior Services are the Pakistan Audit and Accounts Service, the Pakistan Military Accounts Service, the Pakistan Taxation Service, the Pakistan Excise and Land Customs Service, the Central Secretariat Service, the Pakistan Postal Service and the Central Information Service. In addition, there are provincial services which function exclusively under the control of the provincial governments.

Classes of Public Servants

The public servants in Pakistan are divided into a number of classes which very broadly indicate their position in the official hierarchy. There are four major classes, namely, Class I, II, III and IV. The main basis of distinction between these classes is the method of recruitment, the rate of remuneration and the opportunity for advancement.

The officers of Class I are assigned to posts of the highest responsibility and are the most highly paid. They are entrusted with supervisory functions in the field and, in the Secretariat, they are authorised to issue government letters, sign government orders and validate government documents. Taken together, the Class I and II officers are described as gazetted officers. This designation is derived from the fact that the names of these officers are notified in the official Gazette published by the government. In view of the more responsible nature of their work and higher scales of salary, the gazetted officers constitute the upper strata of public servants in the official bureaucracy of Pakistan.

In general, the public servants of Class III perform clerical duties and they are charged with less responsibility than are the officers of Class I and Class II.

The public servants of Class IV perform the functions of messengers, janitors and the like.

The public servants of Class III and IV are non-gazetted officials.

Economic Pool

An Economic Pool was constituted in 1959 on the pattern of the Finance and Commerce Pool existing before independence. A total

of 159 posts were encadred in the Economic Pool. One hundred and twenty officers have already been recruited to the Pool on the basis of annual recruitment. The annual recruitment will continue till the sanctioned cadre is reached.

Judicial Branch of CSP

A Judicial Branch of the Civil Service of Pakistan (CSP) was created in 1954 with the *proviso* that one-third of the posts of District and Session Judges and equivalent posts would be filled by officers of the CSP, not less than one-third by the officers of Provincial Civil (Judicial) Service and not more than one-third by the members of the Bar. A decision was also reached to fill up this quota gradually by transferring CSP officers in accordance with a phased programme. The policy was to transfer suitable officers in the 5th year of their service. Senior officers were also to be transferred to the judicial branch on grounds of suitability or administrative need.

Recruitment

Recruitment to gazetted posts of the various Services in Pakistan are made by the Provincial or the Central Public Service Commissions, as the case may be. Members of the Commissions are appointed, in case of the provinces by the provincial Governors, and in case of the Centre, by the President. The normal method of entry into service is by open competition which comprises written examination or interview or both. The officers of the Superior Services are recruited through competitive examinations of persons between 21 to 25 years of age.

In the central Services the recruitment between the two provinces of Pakistan is made on the basis of equal quotas, with a reservation of 20 per cent seats to be filled on the basis of merit. The West Pakistan quota is further subdivided into regional quotas to give representation in the central services to backward areas. The quota system is maintained mainly to bring East Pakistan on par with West Pakistan. Progressively, as parity is reached, this system is intended to be dispensed with and merit made the sole basis for recruitment.

Promotion

A period of probation (lasting from one to two years) is the rule for all new recruits to the civil services. Promotions from grade to grade are made by the departments concerned in consultation with the Public Service Commission. Promotions to the highest positions, like those of secretaries of ministries and joint secretaries are given under the orders of the President.

Service Conditions

The civil servant receives annual increments upto a maximum of the scale of the grade to which he belongs. Conditional upon good work, he enjoys a considerable measure of security of tenure and gets a pension on retirement. He also enjoys the benefit of provident fund.

In the central secretariat a civil servant works for 37½ hours a week. In fields and courts the working hours vary, fixed according to

their requirements. 'Overtime' is paid to members of lower salary groups. Annual leave varies according to grade, up to a maximum of 30 days a year. In addition, he is entitled to casual and medical leave. A civil servant from one wing working in another wing of Pakistan is entitled to 'recreational leave' with travelling allowance to go home. Normally this is allowed once in three years.

Staff Welfare

A staff welfare organisation undertakes various welfare programmes for the benefit of central government civil employees. These include emergency relief, educational and cultural facilities, community centres and consumer stores.

Training

The emphasis in the business of government is now on development as against law and order. Reorientation of the administrator is, therefore, found essential to equip him for the new tasks ahead of him. Government has accordingly established training institutions for public servants and has set up an Administrative Training Council to advise on administrative training. The training of public servants is now conducted in two phases. The first phase comprises apprenticeship training during the probationary period, and the second is in-service training for which the officers attend short courses in various institutions. The following are some of the institutions which cater for in-service training:

(*a*) The Administrative Staff College;
(*b*) The National Institutes of Public Administration (NIPA);
(*c*) The Academies for Rural Development;
(*d*) The Secretariat Training Institute;

Pakistan Administrative Staff College, Lahore

The courses at the Pakistan Administrative Staff College, Lahore, are designed for senior officers of government to equip them for shouldering higher responsibilities. A few business executives and senior officers of corporations are also included in the course.

Institutes of Public Administration

The National Institutes of Public Administration (at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca) provide management and development training for middle-belt officers of the central and provincial governments, autonomous agencies and private firms. The training is conducted through lectures, seminars, field or observation trips, and research assignments.

Academies for Rural Development

The Rural Academies at Comilla and Peshawar train public servants working in the field and are concerned mainly with problems of the rural population. They also prepare the personnel of the several government departments for the task of integrating all rural development work with a view to achieving maximum improvement in the welfare of the people.

Secretariat Training Institute

The Secretariat Training Institute trains the ministerial and the directly recruited section officers. Seminars and study tours are organised to provide the trainees with opportunities for self-development and for seeing for themselves some of the development work going on in the country. For in-service section officers a refresher course is also conducted.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

The Government of East Pakistan is headed by Governor Abdul Monem Khan, and of West Pakistan by Governor, Gen. Mohammad Musa. The Governors have their Councils of Ministers.

In the provincial secretariat the counterpart of a central division is a department which is headed by a secretary. One or more departments may be assigned to a minister. A chief secretary co-ordinates the activities of all the departments of the Government in the field of personnel and general administration.

The provincial government has full executive authority over the subjects falling within the province's sphere of legislation.

Distribution of Power

All subjects not contained in the central list are provincial subjects liable to legislation by the provincial legislature. Thus with only finance, defence, foreign relations, trade, commerce and communications with the Centre, the provinces enjoy maximum autonomy in other spheres. Railways were formerly a central subject but were recently provincialised.

The provinces, like the Centre, have a consolidated fund, prepare their own budgets based on provincial receipts and central grants.

Administrative Division

For purposes of administration the provinces are divided into divisions, and divisions into districts. Below the districts in East Pakistan are sub-divisions. In West Pakistan districts are divided into *tehsils*, whose counterparts in the Eastern Wing are *thanas*.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT: BASIC DEMOCRACIES

Most executive powers of the provincial governments are located at the district level. The policies framed at the central and provincial secretariats are implemented through the agency of district administration. Vital decisions about law and order as well as extension of social services to the people are eventually taken by it.

The British had introduced local self-government to promote goodwill amongst the people and to prepare them for a larger role in the activities of the country. But adequate powers were never given to these institutions of local government. It was difficult, if not impossible, for the local government to flourish

under the rigid system that was inherited from the British rulers.

On assumption of power President Ayub devised a new system. He sought to build into the system of de-centralised local administration a strong representative element which ensures that the administration as a whole remains responsive to public needs and wishes.

STRUCTURE AND ORGANIZATION

The new local-government institutions are called Basic Democracies. Their elected members also serve the political purpose of electing at the start of their term, the President of the country and members of the central and provincial legislatures, and also as referees in case of a referendum as provided in the Constitution. Apart from that the Basic Democracies constitute, through a four-tier system, rising from the village to the divisional level, a most effective system of local government.

Union Council, Union and Town Committees

The country is divided, for administrative purpose, into small, more or less homogeneous wards of, on an average, 1,100 population each. There are at present 80,000 rural and town wards. In these wards every 1,100 persons elect a representative for a five year term. These elected members are grouped together to form a body called union council in villages, town committees in towns of under 14,000 population, and union committee in municipal areas of more than 14,000 population. Each council or committee elects a chairman from amongst its members. He is the executive head of the council, presides over all its meetings and conducts business on behalf of it. The chairman of the union committee is an ex-officio member of the municipal committee.

Tehsil and Thana Councils, Municipal Committees

The next level of local government for union councils and town committees is the *tehsil* council in West Pakistan and *thana* council in East Pakistan. The *tehsil* or *thana* is a revenue sub-division of the district. The council consists of representative members (which include all the chairmen of the union councils and town committees in that *tehsil* or *thana*), and official members. The total number of official members does not exceed the number of elected members. The official members include the representatives of nation building departments, such as education, agriculture, and health. Till recently there was provision for nomination of some of the members by the deputy commissioner with a view to giving representation to otherwise unrepresented sections, such as minorities, women, and organisations concerned with community development. By an amending ordinance of 1965, all nominations have been abolished. This Council is headed by the revenue head of tehsil or thana, namely, *tehsildar*, *mukhtiarkar*, sub-divisional officer or assistant commissioner.

Municipal Committees

The second level of local government for urban areas exceeding the population of 14,000 is the municipal committee. The municipal committee similarly consists of elected members and officials. The chairmen of all the union committees in the municipal area are members of the municipal committee. The previous limit on the number of elected members (i.e. the chairmen of the union committees) has now been abolished. Another important provision recently added is to provide ten per cent additional seats over and above the strength of the municipal committee for the election of special interests, such as women, minorities and social workers. These recent amendments have been incorporated in the Municipal Administration Ordinance in West Pakistan; in East Pakistan this has not been considered necessary.

The municipal committee is presided over by an official chairman, and the vice-chairman is elected from among the elected members.

District Councils

The third tier in all cases is the district council, one for each district. The district council includes official members, being representative of the departments at the district level, and the elected members. Since the amendment of 1965, there is to be an electoral college for election of the non-official membership of the district council. It is to consist of the chairmen of the union councils and town committees within that district. In the case of tribal areas (the district of Chittagong Hill Tracts and the districts within the Quetta and Kalat Divisions), for whom special representation was necessary, the electoral college has been expanded to include all the members of the union councils and town committees. All persons whose names appear in the electoral roll whether members of Basic Democracies institutions or not, are now eligible to stand for election. Now, as in the municipal committees, an elected non-official vice-chairman has also been provided. The deputy commissioner of the district is the chairman of the district council. The actual membership of a district council varies between 55 and 90.

Divisional Councils

The fourth tier is the divisional council. This also consists of elected and official members. By a recent amendment, the elected seats of the divisional council for each division is to be filled by the representatives of the municipal committees/cantonment boards and the district council within the district who are elected by the elected members of these bodies. Apart from them, others, whether basic democrats or not, can also contest certain seats. No one can now hold membership of both the district and the divisional councils. The actual membership of a divisional council also varies between 55 and 90. The commissioner of the division is the chairman of this council.

The present number of these institutions as formed after the election of 1964 are shown in table No. 5.

Reorganisation

The Basic Democracies system is constantly being watched for any improvements. One result of this was the Basic Democracies

(Amendment) Ordinance of 1965, which made some important changes. The President has himself felt that the institution should be given wider powers so that it is more closely involved in the agricultural, social and economic development activities in the country. In a directive on the "Future Role of Basic Democracies" some time back, he suggested functional decentralisation of the activities of union councils, union committees and town committees.

TABLE 5

PRESENT NUMBER OF THE COUNCILS AND COMMITTEES

The table below gives the total number of B.D. Councils/Committees in East and West Pakistan including Azad Kashmir and Tribal Areas:

	East Pakistan	West Pakistan			Total
		Regular Areas.	Special Areas.	Azad Kashmir	
RURAL AREAS					
Divisional Councils.	4	12	—	—	16
District Councils.	17	46	—	3	66
Agency Councils.	—	—	9	—	9
Thana/Tehsil Councils.	396	202	—	11	609
Town Committees	37	215	6	1	259
Union Councils.	4,032	3,302	112	131	7,577
URBAN AREAS					
Municipal Committees.	29	87	—	2	118
Union Committees	216	809*	—	—	1,025
Total:	4,731	4,673	127	148	9,679

*Includes 77 Union Committees in 23 Cantt: Boards in West Pakistan.

In pursuance of this a seminar of officers of the central and provincial governments, representatives of universities and some other autonomous bodies connected with the Basic Democracies' work, recommended various measures for expansion of activities. These were approved by the Governors' Conference in June, 1965. The salient features of the recommendations were the following:

(*a*) Decentralisation of the units of union councils, union/town committees into ward committees, each of which should be headed by the elected members from the ward and consist of several prominent persons of the locality.

(*b*) Establishment of training and development centres at the *tehsil* level in West Pakistan, as established at the *thana* level in East Pakistan.

(c) Strengthening of *tehsil* councils in West Pakistan to assume an effective role for co-ordinating the activities and programmes of the union councils on the pattern of *thana* councils in East Pakistan and with that end in view, breaking up the large *tehsils* into two or more units.

(d) Training of *imams* for utilisation in imparting lower primary education to children and conducting evening classes for adults.

(e) Public recognition of performance at the union and ward level to provide incentive for good work.

TRAINING

The Basic Democrats are invested with the social, judicial, administrative, developmental and civic responsibilities. In order to enable them to discharge these duties efficiently training spread over one week is imparted to newly elected democrats at training centres.

As a first step in-service training programme is arranged for trainers who include secretaries of union and *thana/tehsil* councils, development officers and supervisors. They receive their training at Basic Democracies training institutes at Lalamusa and Tandojam in West Pakistan and at the academies for Rural Development at Comilla in East Pakistan and at Peshawar in West Pakistan. The duration of the training is four weeks. So far over 3,000 secretaries have been trained in West Pakistan.

They, in turn, impart training to Basic Democrats. During 1965-66, over 32,600 members of union councils and town committees in West Pakistan received training in 780 centres.

FUNCTIONS

The first tier institutions have direct executive responsibility, while the second (barring municipal committees) and fourth tiers, have only co-ordinative functions. The municipal committees have both co-ordinative and executive functions.

Union Council, Union and Town Committees

There is a long list of functions assigned to the first tier which includes maintenance of public ways and streets, preservation of plantations, management of common village land and burial grounds, sanitation of the villages, provision of pure water supply, registration of births and deaths, provision of relief for the destitute, and promotion of agricultural development. These bodies are also required to assist the revenue department in the collection of revenues.

Their most vital function is, however, developmental. With the institution of the Rural Works Programme the union councils and town committees started undertaking a wide-range of activities in the field of agriculture, handicrafts, health and sanitation, small industries, community development and fisheries, construction and repairs of roads, culverts, embankments, canals and bridges, building and maintenance of educational institutions, including adult education centres, community development centres and co-operatives.

An important function of these institutions is the administration of the Family Laws Ordinance, 1961, and the Conciliation Courts Ordinance, 1961. The first authorises union councils to make necessary arrangements for registration of marriages. With a view to regulating polygamy, it also requires that a person wanting to take a second wife should, after securing the first wife's consent, approach the chairman of his union council, who will then constitute an arbitration council to take a decision on the request.

The conciliation court ordinance gives to the union council some judicial powers also, of bringing about conciliation in certain type of disputes. The court cannot award any punishment but can order payment of compensation.

Thana or Tehsil council, and Municipal Committee

The *thana/tehsil* council has the responsibility of co-ordinating the activities of the union councils and town committees in their jurisdiction and also undertaking those functions which the district council entrusts to it, and to whom it is responsible. The functions of the municipal committee includes all activities directed towards improvement of public health, provision of pure water and drainage facilities and preparation and execution of master plans for housing and town planning. It is also responsible for co-ordination of activities of the union committees.

District Council

The compulsory functions of the district council includes the provision of maintenance of primary schools, hospitals and dispensaries, public roads, public ferries, cattle ponds and rest houses, and also regulating traffic and promoting adoption of improved methods of cultivation. There are nearly 70 optional functions which concern secondary education, social and economic welfare and aspects of public health and public works.

This council draws up and executes developmental schemes and co-ordinates the activities of the first and second tier institutions within the district.

The district council also formulates and recommends to the divisional council and other authorities developmental schemes of local importance to the district, and reviews the progress of various branches of administration in the district.

The council has a sanctioning power of expenditure upto Rs 20,000 for a productive and Rs 10,000 for an unproductive scheme out of developmental grants, and upto Rs 50,000 for schemes under the Rural Works Programme.

Divisional Council

The major function of the divisional council is the co-ordination of activities of all local bodies in the division, scrutiny of development schemes, review of administration, and recommendation about improvements made by the district council under it and other authorities. It also formulates development schemes of importance to the division as a whole.

The divisional council can sanction expenditure upto Rs 50,000 for a productive and Rs 25,000 for an unproductive scheme, and upto half-a-million rupees for a scheme under the Rural Works Programme.

Rural Works Programme

In addition to the normal development works, the Basic Democracies institutions have been, as noted, entrusted with the planning and execution of Rural Works Programme also. In 1962, the President visited flood devastated areas of East Pakistan and announced a relief grant of Rs 100 million. To utilise this amount the government of East Pakistan worked out a plan for rural works to be executed through the agency of the Basic Democracies. The main purpose of this programme was to utilise the idle labour force estimated to be one-fifth of the total population and to inject capital into rural economy. The reason for entrusting this Programme to Basic Democracies was to help the local leadership learn and undertake development responsibilities in their own areas. This Programme was introduced on a mass scale, first in East Pakistan in the year 1962-63, and one year later in West Pakistan. A total of about Rs 1,805.5 million had been given under it uptil 1966-67.

FINANCES

Budget Grant

According to a decision of Governor's Conference of May, 1962, the central government is required to share 60 per cent of the expenditure on Basic Democracies in the shape of grants to local councils for development work, administrative expenses, training institutes, seminars and conventions. From the year 1964-65, it was, however, decided to discontinue the Centre's subsidiary grant for development expenditure as it was already providing a substantial amount for execution of the Rural Works Programme by the Basic Democracies.

The budget provision as grants-in-aid to provincial governments for the working of Basic Democracies on 60 per cent basis and in accordance with Governors' Conference decision (for administrative expenses, convention and seminars and training institutes) has been as under:

million rupees

	1965-66	1966-67
East Pakistan	3.4	3.6
West Pakistan	8.3	8.4

Financial Position of Local Bodies

The Basic Democracies Councils have developed their own budgets according to the "Model Taxation Schedule" prepared by the provincial governments. Apart from the financial grants from the central and provincial governments, they started executing their development programmes through their own budgets and collection of funds from the public as subscription/matching grants to finance their projects of local importance.

The average income of ex-union boards in East Pakistan was between Rs 200 to Rs 5,000. Now the average annual income of union councils set up under the Basic Democracies system is approximately Rs 13,500 collected mainly from three taxes, namely, tax on land and buildings; rate for village police, tax on vehicles, carts, boats; local rate-share from district councils development grants and other sources. The average estimated income of union councils in West Pakistan is about Rs 10,000 to Rs 11,000 derived mainly from grants, share of local rates and miscellaneous items.

The average income of the ex-district boards of East Pakistan was about 500,000 to 600,000 rupees. Now, the income of the district councils under the new set-up has risen to Rs 1.5 million to Rs 1.6 million. The principal sources of their income are local rates, grants in lieu of landlord's hare cesses, immovable property tax, subvention grants and provincial government grants. In West Pakistan, the average estimated income of district councils (excluding tribal areas) is about Rs 2.0 million to 2.1 million, derived mainly from local rates, tax on business and professions, and miscellaneous items.

The financial position of the urban bodies has also gone up considerably. Previously, the average income of smaller and bigger municipalities in East Pakistan was Rs 1.5 million and Rs 3.5 million respectively. Now, the corresponding figures of the same bodies under the Basic Democracies system are Rs 2.0 million and Rs 20 million respectively (excluding octroi collections). The average octroi collection is about Rs 4.0 million to Rs 5.0 million in case of principal municipalities, namely, Dacca and Chittagong. The income of the principal municipalities has gone up by 3 to 4 times during these years. The actual income of Dacca Municipal Corporation was Rs 5.2 million during 1960-61. Its estimated income in 1961-62 had gone upto Rs 6.8 million and in 1962-63 to Rs 10 million. Similar is the case with the urban bodies of West Pakistan. Income of the municipalities went up 3 to 4 times. For example, the income of Gujranwala Municipal Committee had risen from Rs 500,000 to Rs 2.5 million and that of Lyallpur Municipal Committee from Rs 2.0 million to Rs 10 million. The total income of municipal committees and town committees in West Pakistan is approximately Rs 200 million to Rs 210 million derived from octroi, house tax, grants, rates and other taxes, capital receipts, rents, and miscellaneous other heads. Out of 80 municipal committees, 70 have a balanced budget with sufficient surplus.

Recent Development Activities of Basic Democracies

The improved financial position of the Basic Democracies institutions helped them to carry out numerous local welfare projects. Out of their normal budgets, they constructed bridges, culverts, schools, community centres, agricultural demonstration and poultry farms and dispensaries.

Though no statistical data on the work done by the union and district councils of East Pakistan under normal budget is available, a

rough idea of the volume of development work can be had from the fact that the union councils spent approximately 63 per cent (that is Rs 35 million) of their revenue on development works and the district councils spent as much as 80 per cent.

In West Pakistan they have constructed and repaired, out of normal development funds, 685 primary schools, 141 middle schools, 62 high schools, 149 other institutions, 119 miles of pucca roads, 1,106 miles of kutcha roads, 76 bridges, 1,791 culverts, 77 cause-ways, 105 civil dispensaries, 11 maternity centres, 16 rural health centres, 100 mobile dispensaries, 1,506 hand pumps, 937 water wells, 74 water tanks, 19 drains (79,079 feet), 59 tubewells, 168 bunds, 77 water channels (48,488 feet), 26 karezes, 5 minor irrigation schemes, 31 agricultural model farms, 28 poultry farms, 52 veterinary dispensaries, 27 community halls, 16 union halls, 5 markets, and 17 other schemes of local importance during one financial year.

GENERAL ELECTION 1964-65

The first phase of the general election of 1964-65 started with the election of the members of the Electoral College. A total of 80,000 members of the Electoral College, in equal half from each of the Provinces, were elected on the basis of universal adult franchise. More than 30 million registered voters (78 per cent of the total) exercised their right in contested elections. These elections were conducted in West Pakistan from October 31 to November 9, and in East Pakistan from November 10 to 19, 1964. The members of the Electoral College were then required to elect the President and the members of the National and Provincial Assemblies. The country-wide polls for election of the President were held on January 2, 1965 in which 99.6 per cent of the members of the Electoral College cast their votes. The elections for members of the National Assembly were held on March 21, and for the two Provincial Assemblies on May 16, 1965.

Under the Constitution, the members of the Electoral College can be assigned functions of local government. According to the provisions of section 57 of the Electoral College Act, the members of the electoral college had to assume charge of the newly-constituted union councils, union committees and town committees after completing their obligation to elect the President and the three legislatures. The Electoral College elections, therefore, were keenly contested and, as compared to the first Basic Democracies election in 1959, there was a sharp rise in the number of registered voters, percentage of voting and number of contestants. A considerable number of sitting members of Basic Democracies were also re-elected (42 per cent in East Pakistan and 35 per cent in West Pakistan).

Presidential Election

The presidential election was held on January 2, 1965.* There were in all four candidates but the real contest was between Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan, the Pakistan Muslim League (PML) nominee, who was also the sitting president, and Mohtarama Fatima Jinnah, the nominee of the Combined Opposition Parties (COP)† and a sister of Quaid-i-Azam Mahomed Ali Jinnah, the founder of Pakistan. The COP was also supported by the National Democratic Front (NDF). The two others were independent candidates.

Election Manifestos

The presidential candidates gave out their programmes and manifestos and ran their election campaigns throughout the country. The PML candidate promised to honour the will of the people as 'Supreme in all matters of State', and provide for 'a welfare state with a form of Government consistent with the ideological basis of the country'. He maintained that efforts would be made to 'free the society from the shackles of past domination'. The manifesto favoured a strong 'centre capable of providing full provincial autonomy without allowing centrifugal forces to re-assert themselves', undertook to 'maximise the utilisation of national resources' and ensure that the 'burden of taxation is distributed in a fair and equitable manner'. It also undertook to ensure that improvement in the standard of living of the people of Pakistan was not neutralised by 'un-balanced increase in population' and to take steps to achieve 'parity between the two wings of the country' in the light of the constitutional provisions. It urged that reforms should be undertaken 'in a missionary and not in a vainglorious spirit'. Independence of foreign policy in keeping with the integrity and the interest of the country, and continued efforts for the solution of the Kashmir dispute were also promised.

The COP gave their nine-point programme whose distinguishing feature was the intention to bring back parliamentary system of government with direct elections and universal adult franchise, and a promise on that basis to democratise the 1962 Constitution.

In accordance with a provision of the Constitution, the presidential candidates, in addition to their individual campaigns throughout the country, addressed ten elector-candidate meetings arranged by the Election Commission in both the wings of the country. These meetings were presided over by a member of the Election Commission from each province (who was a High Court Judge) and the electors had the right to put questions to the candidates after their address.

The election took place peacefully. The result in regard to the

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*The Constitution (Second Amendment) Act advanced the presidential election by five months to enable the in-coming Head of State to reflect his thinking and the people's mandate in the next year's budget. *Vide* Constitution (Second Amendment) Act, 1964 (VI of 1964) Sec. 2.

†(1) Awami League, (2) National Awami Party, (3) Jama'at-i-Islami, (4) Nizam-i-Islam Party, and (5) Council Muslim League, a dissident group of the Pakistan Muslim League.

two candidates nominated by the PML and COP is given in table No. 6.

The PML nominee, who had polled 21,260 votes more than the COP candidate, was declared elected president for the next five years (i.e. 1965-70).

TABLE 6

CONSOLIDATED RESULTS OF PRESIDENTIAL POLLS

Candidate	Number of Votes Polled		
	E. Pakistan	W. Pakistan	Total
F. M. Mohammad Ayub Khan	21,012	28,939	49,951 (63.31%)
Mohtarama Miss Fatima Jinnah	18,434	10,257	28,691 (36.36%)

Source: *Election Commission*

National Assembly Election

The National Assembly election was held on 21st March 1965. After the unopposed return of six candidates to the seats reserved exclusively for women, the final party position emerged as under:

TABLE 7

PARTY POSITION IN NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

	E. Pakistan	W. Pakistan	Total
Pakistan Muslim League	55	69	124
Combined Opposition Party	14	1	15
Independent	9	8	17
	78	78	156

Source: *Election Commission*

Provincial Assembly Election

Elections to the two Provincial Assemblies were held on 16th May, 1965. In East Pakistan, 664 candidates contested election, while the number of contesting candidates in West Pakistan was 310. The PML was returned with an absolute majority in both the wings.

6. DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

Background

Planning Machinery. *Development Board ; Planning Board ;* Planning Commission; its Organisation and Functions; National Economic Council ; Executive Committee of the NEC; Other Planning Organisations at central, provincial and local levels.

Early Planning. First Measures ; Six-Year Plan ; Two-Year Priority-Plan ; Results.

First Five-Year Plan. Objectives; Performance.

Second Five-Year Plan. Objectives; Provisions; Performance, Sector-wise.

Perspective Plan. Twenty-Year Objectives.

Third Five-Year Plan. Philosophy of Planning ; Size of the Plan ; Objectives of the Plan ; Resources ; Performance in First Year of the Plan.

Table. Physical Targets of the Third Plan, Sector-wise.

When Pakistan was formed as a separate independent State in 1947, the areas composing it happened also to be among the economically most backward in the subcontinent. East Pakistan, the world's biggest grower of jute, had no jute mills. Baling-presses for cotton were so few that they could use up only about one-tenth of the produce of West Pakistan. These areas had depended almost entirely on the region now forming India for all manufactured products, for coal, iron and steel, tobacco, sugar, vegetable oil and other commodities. In the whole country, less than 100,000 kilowatts of generating capacity existed. There were two main railway systems, the North Western broad gauge in the West and the East Bengal metre gauge in the East, with a total mileage of 6,994 miles. The former had been built more for strategic than for commercial purposes, and was not self-supporting. Locomotives and coaches had been worn out during the Second World War and the rolling stock had to be replaced. Moreover, at independence the railways had almost come to a standstill because of coal shortage. Its two wings separated by 1,200 air miles and 3,000 sea miles, Pakistan had no merchant fleet and no air service. Karachi had an excellent port, but the natural harbour at Chittagong in the

Eastern Wing had remained neglected in favour of Calcutta. It had only four berths with a discharging capacity of less than 2,000 tons a day—which was highly inadequate if the indigenous jute industry was to be developed and the province's regular food deficit was to be met from the other wing. In agriculture, by which 80 per cent of the population lived, the beginnings of mechanisation was a long way off, and antiquated inefficient methods prevailed. There was no national radio station.

Pakistan's initial problems were aggravated by a spontaneous unplanned movement of population over the boundaries with India, involving about 15 million people. The incoming refugees were mostly destitute farmers and craftsmen who had to be settled and rehabilitated. The outgoing Hindus and Sikhs were often businessmen, members of professions and office workers whose replacements had to be found quickly. Schools, hospitals, banks and other institutions, run mostly by non-Muslims, were left without their supervisory personnel. And the whole government machinery had to be set up with the inheritance of about a 100 officers of the *Indian* Civil Service, with insufficient staff and without suitable office space and equipment.

Planning for national development had to begin in such circumstances, and it had to meet these and numerous other needs. Although the country has now come a long way in the twenty years since then, development still remains a very great challenge. The population now is 115 million, and is increasing at the yearly rate of 3 million. Although in area larger than Britain, France and Greece combined, Pakistan remains one of the most densely populated countries. Despite a remarkably high rate of economic development in recent years, the per capita income still stands at Rs 365 ($ 76.65).

PLANNING MACHINERY

The planning machinery in Pakistan has passed through an evolutionary process during these twenty years. There have been three distinct phases of its development: the first from 1947 to 1953, the second from 1953 to 1958, and the third from 1958 onwards when it finally achieved the importance, the powers, and the organisation needed for a co-ordinated economic planning as a primary national effort.

Development Board, Planning Advisory Board, Planning Commission, Economic Council

Early in 1948 the Government established a Development Board which was assigned the functions of co-ordinating development plans prepared by provincial governments, recommending priorities, watching the progress of development projects, and making periodic reports to the Cabinet on such progress. A Planning Advisory Board, composed of officials and representatives of the private sector, was also set up to advise government on matters relating to planning and development, reviewing progress in implementing plans, and eliciting public support for the development effort. The Planning Advisory Board was assisted by a series of industrial boards and committees

set up at the Centre and in the provinces.

The Development Board made an effort at comprehensive planning when in 1950, in pursuance of the recommendation of the Colombo Plan Consultative Committee, it hurriedly compiled a six-year (1951-57) development plan for the country.

In early 1951 a new planning machinery was also set up to implement the Six-Year Programme. The Planning Advisory Board was abolished and the Development Board was replaced by a Planning Commission of 20 members with the Minister for Economic Affairs as Chairman. In addition, an Economic Council was also created as the highest economic body, with the Prime Minister as its Chairman, and some of the ministers in charge of developmental ministries as members. The Council was made responsible for implementing the Six-Year Programme, for approving projects falling under the programme, and for reporting periodically upon the implementation of the Programme.

During this first phase, despite a multiplicity of planning committees and other organisational units, and despite some serious efforts, the planning machinery could not be very effective. It was not properly equipped for project appraisal, and the operational techniques for economic analysis had not yet been developed. Besides, the post-independence conditions were such that needs had often to be dealt with in *ad hoc*, isolated manner depending upon the urgency with which they made themselves felt: it was difficult in that uncertain period to have them circumscribed within the limits of an integrated plan.

Planning Board

While the Six-Year Development programme was being implemented, the need was increasingly felt for the formulation of a co-ordinated and integrated development plan, based on a proper estimate of financial resources and on a systematic order of priorities. Consequently, in July 1953, the Government created a Planning Board and charged it with the responsibility of formulating such a plan covering the period from April 1955 to March 1960. After grappling with initial difficulties of uncertain status, absence of statistical data, and of staffing, the last named partly overcome with the help of a contingent of foreign advisers obtained through the Harvard University under a Ford Foundation grant, the Planning Board was able to prepare the First Five-Year Plan by early 1956. It did not, however, receive formal Government approval until early 1958.

Planning Commission

The third phase in the evolution of the planning machinery began in October 1958 with the advent of a new regime, when immediately the Planning Board was raised to the status of a Planning Commission. Later, the Commission was further raised to the status of a Division in the President's Secretariat, with the President himself assuming the chairmanship of the Commission. A deputy chairman, with the ex-officio status of a minister, was made the operational head of

the Commission. In addition to the Chairman and Deputy Chairman, the membership of the Commission comprises the Secretary in charge of the Planning Division, and a representative from each of the two provinces.

The Commission has been assigned a list of 15 important functions. They include:

(*a*) Preparation of national plans at periodic intervals;
(*b*) Preparation of annual development programmes within the framework of the national plan, and proposing the allocation of resources.
(*c*) Proposing implementation of approved development projects, particularly aided projects.
(*d*) Reporting on the progress of projects.
(*e*) Measurement of performance against promise.
(*f*) Identification of causes of delays etc., in the implementation of projects.
(*g*) Advice on the nature of the machinery for securing official execution of the national plan.
(*h*) Assessment from time to time of the human and material resources of the country.
(*i*) Analaysis of and recommendation on important economic policies and programmes.
(*j*) Data collection for the use of aid-giving countries, economic appraisement, and evaluation.

The Commission carries out these responsibilities with the help of some 21 technical sections, each manned by a chief, and one or more deputy chiefs, assistant chiefs, research officers and economic investigators. The sections deal with different economic sectors, namely, food and agriculture, water and power, industries and commerce, transport and communication, education, health, social welfare, housing, and manpower. There are sections dealing with fiscal and monetary aspects, with international economics, and economic research. Similarly, planning under the Regional Cooperation for Development Agreement (RCD) is done by the RCD section, and programming and perspective planning are carried out by other separate sections. There is also a Projects Wing which is responsible for appraisal of projects, for evaluation and progressing of projects in hand, and for study of private investments.

The Planning Commission is represented on practically all the decision-making committees in the government. The Deputy Chairman of the Commission is a member of the National Economic Council, the highest decision-making body in the economic field. The Central Development Working Party is chaired by the Secretary, Planning Division, or, for schemes costing above a certain limit, by the Deputy Chairman of the Commission. The Commission is consulted in the formulation of the industrial investment schedule for the privately financed sector; it is represented on the committee which sanctions proposals for private investment; it is represented on the Foreign

Exchange Controls Commission; and it acts as a Secretariat to the Executive Committee of the National Economic Council.

Annual Development Programmes

As noted, one of the responsibilities of the Commission is to prepare annual development programmes within the framework of its periodical (five-year) plans. This it does in consultation with the sponsoring agencies, making the programme a part of the annual budget statement of the central and provincial governments. The consolidated programme is presented to the National and Provincial Assemblies with the budget proposals.

National Economic Council

The National Economic Council (NEC), as the supreme decision-making body in the economic sphere, carries out the following:

(*a*) Review of the overall economic position of the country;
(*b*) Formulation of plans with respect to financial, commercial and economic policies and the economic development of the country;
(*c*) Approval of the five-year plans, the annual development programmes, the central and provincial public sector schemes above a certain limit, schemes in the private sector, and all non-plan schemes;
(*d*) Steps for removal of economic and per capita income disparity between provinces and between different areas within a province.

In respect of its last responsibility the Council is required to report annually to the central legislature.

The President is the chairman of the Council. Members include the two Governors; all the central ministers except those of law, foreign affairs, and home and Kashmir affairs; the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission; and provincial ministers in charge of the finance and planning and development departments.

Executive Committee

The Executive Committee of the National Economic Council is responsible for—

(*a*) Sanctioning development scheme both in public and private sector pending their submission to the National Economic Council;
(*b*) Allowing moderate changes in the plans and sectoral readjustments within the overall allocations; and
(*c*) Supervising the implementation of economic policies laid down by the Cabinet and the NEC.

The Committee is required ordinarily to hold its meetings twice a month. It is chaired by the central Finance Minister, and includes among members the two Governors, or ministers nominated by them, the central ministers of commerce, industries, agriculture and works, the provincial ministers of finance, and the Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission.

Other Planning Organizations

Among other planning organisations there are the Development Working Parties at the centre and in the provinces. They scrutinise and approve, from the technical point of view, all development projects in the public sector above a prescribed limit which are to be included in the five-year plans, or in the annual development programmes. There are Planning Development Department in the provinces also, headed by senior civil servants.

In recent years, with the Basic Democracies system working out most successfully (see Chapter on Government), further decentralisation of the planning process has been put in train. The local plans are developed at the very base, by the union councils, co-ordinated at the next level of *thana/tehsil* councils, and administered by the district councils. The district plans are processed and consolidated further at the divisional level and component programmes allotted priorities. At the provincial level the Planning and Development Department divides divisional plans by sectors developing them into provincial plans. For the implementation of these plans, the process is reversed. The national targets are broken down into provincial, divisional, district, *thana/ tehsil* and village targets.

EARLY PLANNING

After setting up a Development Board in early 1948, government followed it up with other measures to achieve planned development. In the process the key industries were transferred from the provinces to the centre to ensure their speedy development.

Several measures were taken to encourage capital formation in the country. The new industries using power machinery and employing more than 50 men were exempted for the first five years from income tax, super-tax and business profit tax on profits not exceeding 5 per cent. Foreign investment was welcomed, and assurance given of non-discriminatory treatment to foreign investors in all respects coupled with guarantees of repatriation. To meet the shortage of technicians Pakistanis were sent abroad in increasing numbers for training, and meanwhile foreign experts were brought in. Measures were initiated to develop power and communications.

Six-Year Plan

In May 1950, the Consultative Committee of the newly organized Colombo Plan (for Co-operative Economic Development in South and South-East Asia) decided that its member countries prepare co-ordinated 6-year development plans beginning in mid-1951. Pakistan's Six-Year Development programme, covering the period from July 1951 to June 1957 was incorporated in the Colombo Plan and adopted by the Government for implementation in November 1950. This Programme provided for an investment totalling Rs 2,600 million of which Rs 2,200 million was to be public development expenditure and Rs 400 million private investment. Agriculture received about one-third of the total allocation; transport, power, and industry each received between 18 to 20 per cent; and the social services the remainder. Some 67 'main projects' were listed, and physical targets

were set, although these targets were not related specifically to the projects. An increase of 30 per cent in the standard of living was estimated to result from the implementation of the Programme.

Two-Year Priority Programme

In April 1951, a two-year priority programme was adopted within the overall framework of the Six-Year Programme with the object of speeding up development projects, particularly in the fields of fuel and power, industry and mining, transport, communications and agriculture—projects which were thought to be of primary importance to the economy. The investment over these two years was estimated to be Rs 505 million.

Results

Following the cease-fire in Korea, the prices of Pakistan's exports sharply declined, while the cost of machinery, equipment, and other materials which Pakistan required for its projects had already been increasing. Serious food shortage occurred at about the same time, and heavy expenditure began producing inflationary trends. For these and other reasons, both the six-year and the two-year programmes could not be implemented in full.

Nevertheless some results were achieved. Industrial assets increased three and a half times during 1950-55. Substantial increases occurred in the capacity of the existing and the new industries. Both private investment and government outlays through the Industrial Development Corporation (established in 1952) contributed a great deal to the growth. Power, transport, ports and communications, and social and municipal services were all greatly expanded. The gross national product increased by over 14 per cent during these five years.

FIRST FIVE-YEAR PLAN

The Five-Year Plan (for 1955-60) marked the first comprehensive, integrated and realistic attempt at planning in Pakistan. After a thorough study of all basic problems it made detailed recommendations in respect of them. The Plan especially pleaded for land reforms, and for such legislative and administrative decisions and governmental reorganisation, both at the Centre and in the provinces, as it considered necessary to implement the Plan. It also stressed the need for obtaining maximum public participation in the development effort and recommended measures for doing so.

Objectives

The physical targets of the Plan were:

(*a*) To increase national income by 15 per cent and per capita income by 7 per cent;

(*b*) To create two million new jobs;

(*c*) To increase food grains production by 9 per cent, and production of cash crops from 15 to 33 per cent;

(*d*) To increase industrial production by about 60 per cent.

In addition, targets were set for increasing exports, for rural development, for improvement of irrigation facilities, power capacity, communications, social welfare services, etc.

Performance

The implementation of the Plan was best carried out in the industrial sector. Favourable exchange rates for imported capital goods, reduced tax rates, and high depreciation allowances stimulated reinvestment of large private profits. In the public sector, the Industrial Development Corporation played an important role. Most of its investments went to establishing jute, paper, woollen and sugar mills, cement factories, chemical plants and shipyards. Improvement in transport and communications and electric generating capacity were close to expectations. In agriculture, over a million acres of land were brought under new irrigation and an additional 2.6 million irrigated acres were improved. The use of fertiliser increased almost four times and food storage capacity rose by over 300,000 tons.

However, because the concept of planning was still new to the country, the organisational network for implementation of a long term plan had yet to be fully evolved. There had also been lack of political stability during the period which weakened governmentalco m-mitment to the Plan. Because of these and some other factors there were some serious failures in implementation. For instance, although the targets of financial investments postulated by the Plan were fulfilled to the extent of 90 per cent, the accomplishment in physical terms lagged far behind, due mainly to an inflationary rise in prices and delay in the completion of long-gestation projects. The actual increase in the national income during the Plan period was about 11 per cent, instead of the estimated 15 per cent. Even this increase was in effect eliminated because the population increase, estimated by the Plan to be in the order of 7 per cent, actually turned out to be as high as 12 per cent. There was thus virtually no increase in per capita income and no improvement in the standard of living of the people.

Agriculture was given the highest priority in the Plan, but in implementation its progress was much slower than that of industry. Only a little over 50 per cent of the planned investment was actually carried out in this sector. The rural development programme fell short of targets; and so did the irrigation programme.

It was nevertheless some achievement by itself that the Plan had focussed attention on important problems, and had made recommendations for reorganizing governmental bodies, establishing new agencies and introducing basic reforms for effective implementation of the Plan. Equally significantly, it had created a measure of appreciation among the people of the process of development, and some recognition of the role which everyone in society had to play in furthering national development effort. A climate was thus created for economic growth. Conditions were now ripe, as the Second Plan noted, 'for taking a decisive step forward in the advance towards a self-reliant and self-sustaining economy'.

SECOND FIVE-YEAR PLAN

Some of the main objectives of the Second Plan (1960-65) were as follows:

Objectives

(*a*) Increase of 24 per cent in the national income.

(*b*) Increase of about 12 per cent in the per capita income, after allowing for the increase in population during the period.

(*c*) Highest priority to agriculture; self-sufficiency in foodgrain production by achieving 21 per cent increase.

(*d*) Increase of 60 per cent in industrial production.

(*e*) Increase in the foreign exchange earnings at the rate of 3 per cent per annum.

Provisions

To achieve these and other targets, a gross investment of Rs 23,000 million (Rs 14,620 million in the public sector) was proposed.

There were some major investment programmes proposed outside the Plan also, like the 'Works Programme' for rural development, the Indus Basin replacement projects, and a 5,900 million rupee Master Plan for waterlogging and salinity which was to further help agriculture.

The Second Plan period and the years immediately preceding it were characterised by basic administrative and organizational reforms which the First Plan had considered essential to its execution but which could not be undertaken earlier. It was also decided in this connection to correlate the annual budget with the development programme. The Five-Year Plan projects were now required to be split up into yearly development programmes and co-ordinated with the annual national budget proposals. The phased annual programmes were also required to estimate their domestic and foreign exchange cost requirements and their economic and physical targets for that year. These and other administrative and organizational measures prepared the way for a methodical and realistic implementation of the Plan targets.

Performance of Second Plan

Most of the key targets of the Second Plan were achieved, several even exceeded.

(*a*) The gross national income increased by 30.4 per cent over the five years (instead of the 24 per cent planned).

(*b*) The per capita income increased by 14.8 per cent (against 12 per cent planned) after taking into account a population increase during the period by about 2.6 per cent.

(*c*) Foodgrain production rose by 27 per cent (against the target of 21 per cent), although this did not yet bring self-sufficiency as planned.

(*d*) Industrial production increased by 61.4 per cent (against 60 per cent planned).

(*e*) Foreign exchange earnings rose at the rate of 7 per cent per annum (against 3 per cent planned).

There was a significant structural transformation. The increasing contribution of non-agricultural sectors (namely, manufacturing and mining, construction, transport, trade and other services) to the GNP imparted a degree of firmness to growth rate.

In agriculture, with the growing application of physical factors

of production like water, improved seeds, implements, fertilizers and plant protection materials, a more stable base was created for this sector.

A third feature was the demonstration of the country's ability to mobilize much greater internal financial resources than was anticipated by the planners. It had been expected that foreign aid would have to contribute to the extent of 50 per cent of the cost; actually only 32 per cent were sufficient, thanks to increased export earnings. Finally, the economic growth brought a degree of monetary stability, and liberalisation of the economic policy created stability in prices.

To achieve these results, the estimate of expenditure had had to be exceeded by Rs 4,630 million. The investment level rose to 17 per cent of the GNP with over one-fifth of the additional income generated being saved and reinvested.

Developments in the more important sectors over the Second Plan period are summarised in the following paragraphs.

Agriculture

Plan objectives in the agricultural sector were to increase the real income of the farmers, to promote the development of agriculture on sound lines and to move towards self-sufficiency in food requirements, and also to improve nutritional standards. The annual growth rate in agriculture, which was 1.3 per cent upto the middle of 1950's, increased to 3.4 per cent during the Second Plan period. This rate of growth was significant because of the size of this sector in the economy and dependence on it of other crucial targets, like exports, savings, prices, etc.

The output of food grains increased by 27 per cent indicating an average annual rate of growth of 4.9 per cent. The increased production was due among other things, to the facts that fertiliser use had quadrupled over the period, plant protection measures had been expanded, and well over one million acres of land had been brought under cultivation in newly colonised areas. The other sub-sectors of agriculture, namely, live-stock and live-stock products, forestry and fisheries, also expanded at an annual rate ranging between two to five per cent.

The general agricultural policy during the Second Plan, such as price control and buffer stock operations of food grains, reduction of export duties on cash crops, especially cotton and jute, subsidising of key agricultural inputs like fertilisers—all these helped create a climate which called forth individual initiative of a sizeable portion of Pakistan's twelve million farmers.

Industry

In industry the primary aim was to boost up production both for domestic consumption and export. This was achieved through liberal facilities for private investment (both local and foreign), and liberal import of essential raw materials. Participation of the public sector in the industrial field was undertaken only where necessary.

Emphasis was laid on better utilisation of the installed capacity by balancing, modernising and expanding existing industries and by

setting up new ones.

As a result of various measures taken in this regard, the industrial capacity expanded rapidly and there was a substantial increase in the output. The country attained self-sufficiency in a large number of consumer goods and capital goods. The Plan target of 60 per cent increase in industrial production was not only achieved but exceeded. The index of production, with 1959-60=100, went up to 161.4.

The structural change brought about in the economy was to the extent that industry's contribution to the GNP rose from 7 per cent to 11.5 per cent in 1964-65. The share of the large-scale industry in total manufacturing activity increased from about 20 per cent in 1949-50 to 60 per cent in 1964-65.

Water and Power

The objectives in the water and power sector were to raise productivity of existing lands, to increase farm acreage, to provide low cost electric power, and to provide for a rapid increase in the size of the development programme in East Pakistan.

The overall performance in water was as follows:

• New land brought under irrigation	2.19	million acres
• Land improved through better irrigation, flood control and drainage facilities	8.06	,, ,,

The installed capacity of power by sources of generation was developed as follows:

	Megawatts	
• In public utilities	1960	1965
Hydro	241	348
Steam	297	686
Diesel	90	111
Sub-Total	628	1,145
• In industrial Establishments	254	290
Total:	882	1,435

The number of consumers and consumption per capita increased from 445,000 and 24 units in 1959-60 to 900,000 and 39.6 units in 1964-65. Some 3,100 villages were electrified against the Plan target of 5,000 for want of foreign assistance.

Fuels and Minerals

The programme for the development in the fuels and minerals sector had two-fold objective: fuller utilisation of the resources already discovered, and the discovery of new resources. The first objective entailed scientific research and detailed investigations directed towards the economic utilization of low grade minerals, and the second required geological surveys and mapping.

Large deposits of natural gas, coal, iron ore, chromite, barytes,

gypsum and other minerals were found in both the wings of Pakistan. Exploration of oil and gas was continued. The consumption of natural gas increased from 29,842 million cubic feet in 1960 to an estimated 80,000 million cubic feet in 1965.

Transport

The objectives in transport were to maintain in good condition, to expand, improve, and modernise existing facilities. Most of the physical targets of the Plan were fulfilled.

In railways 70 to 100 per cent of the targets were achieved in respect of replacement of old and acquisition of additional rolling stock and in renewals of rails and sleepers. In Karachi a 17½ mile circular railway was opened to goods and passenger traffic; so was a bridge over the Rohri Channel of the River Indus. Other bridges were also completed. In East Pakistan four major railway projects in respect of either extension of line, realignment, or connection between industrial centres, were in hand. Freight-ton miles and passenger-miles greatly increased in both the Wings.

Several new schemes relating to the development of the ports of Karachi, Chittagong and Chalna were completed. Pakistan had a fleet of 55 ships with 506,000 dead weight tons at the end of the Plan period, as against 26 ships she owned at the beginning of the Plan. A mercantile marine academy was established near Chittagong

Civil aviation made considerable progress. New planes, including Boeings, Fokkers, Tridents, and helicopters were acquired, and inland and foreign services were expanded by the Pakistan International Airlines.

In road transport there was, among other things, a doubling of the fleet of omnibuses in East Pakistan, a 70 per cent increase in West Pakistan and about 75 per cent in the country as a whole.

Communications

The schemes under the Postal Department were overfulfilled. Similar achievements were also made in the telecommunication services.

In the field of broadcasting, full-fledged broadcasting facilities were provided at Karachi, Hyderabad, Quetta, Lahore, Peshawar, Rawalpindi, Dacca, Rajshahi and Chittagong.

Physical Planning and Housing

The Plan assigned top priority to the basic development programme in physical planning and housing. It included: organizations for physical planning and housing; development plans for urban areas; creation of housing and building research centres; and education facilities for architecture, city planning and building trades. Emphasis was on the settlement of shelterless displaced persons and provision of housing for the lower income groups.

Against an overall number of 20 urban development plans for important urban centres, seven were completed and work on three was in hand.

Education and Training

The process of expansion and improvement in education was carried out as planned. The Plan provided for the opening of 15,000 new and development of 9,000 old primary schools, and accommodation for about 2.54 million additional children. These targets were achieved. At the secondary stage, the Plan provided for the opening of 55 new higher secondary and 178 high schools; and up-grading of 1,160 primary and middle schools. These targets were also achieved. Technical education at all levels was introduced. The two engineering colleges at Lahore and Dacca were developed into universities. Three new engineering colleges and 11 new polytechnics and technical institutes were established and a number of new technologies were introduced. The two provincial Directorates of Technical Education were reorganized and strengthened. In the primary sector, two million additional childern were enrolled. The target of 430,000 for enrolment in the secondary sector was fully achieved. At the higher secondary stage, a marked increase in enrolment took place, but the facilities available for scientific and technological studies were still short of requirement.

At the higher educational level, significant advance was made in the provison of physical facilities, inclusive of buildings, scientific equipments, laboratories, libraries, study rooms for teachers and other essential amenities.

A comprehensive system of merit scholarships for the talented students at all levels of education beyond the free primary stage, and programmes of in-service training for primary and secondary school teachers were started on institutionalized basis.

Health

The Plan objectives were to provide adequate medical and health services for conserving and developing the energies of the people. The Plan assigned priority to the preventive over the curative services, such as eradication of malaria and small-pox, control of T.B., establishment of maternity and child welfare centres. The targets set for the number of doctors, nurses, lady health visitors, hospital beds, tuberculosis clinics, school health clinics, rural health centres, nurses training centres and medical colleges were achieved.

Social Welfare

The Plan objectives in social welfare, apart from health, housing and education, were to strengthen community life by helping the people develop their capacity and initiative and mobilise their own resources to meet felt social service needs, to provide guidance to individuals and families in need and to assist their adjustment to the environment.

The programmes of urban community development, medical social work, youth welfare, family and child welfare, and grants-in-aid to voluntary agencies were successfully implemented. Two Directorates of Social Welfare, one in each province, were established. Two Chief Welfare Training Institutes, one each at Dacca and Lahore, started functioning. The private effort grew 20 times in the

decade 1955-65 under the impact of the two Plans. The number of bonafide private agencies of social welfare rose to about 4,000, as against 200 in 1955.

Employment

The objectives in employment were: to produce workers with the needed skills at the right time and place for successive stages of development; to prevent wastage of skill, experience and education; to develop means of channelling surplus manpower into useful work; to raise the level of employment; and to conserve and develop the efficiency of the labour force.

Accelerated economic growth after 1960 arrested the trend of increasing labour wastage without diminishing the absolute level of unemployment. For the first time it was possible to absorb the entire increase of labour force. This performance during the Second Plan period pointed the way to future reductions in the absolute level of unemployment. It is estimated that the force increased over the Plan period by about 3.6 million persons. Against this number of new entrants about 1.5 million new jobs were created in the non-agricultural sector of the economy and 2.1 million in agriculture.

To provide training facilities, some of the technical training centres were improved during the period; eight labour welfare centres were established and three more were nearing completion.

Works Programme

The Rural Works Programme was initiated in East Pakistan in the year 1962-63 and was extended to West Pakistan in 1963-64. The Programme, as originally conceived, had four major objectives:

(*a*) To provide larger employment opportunities in rural areas.

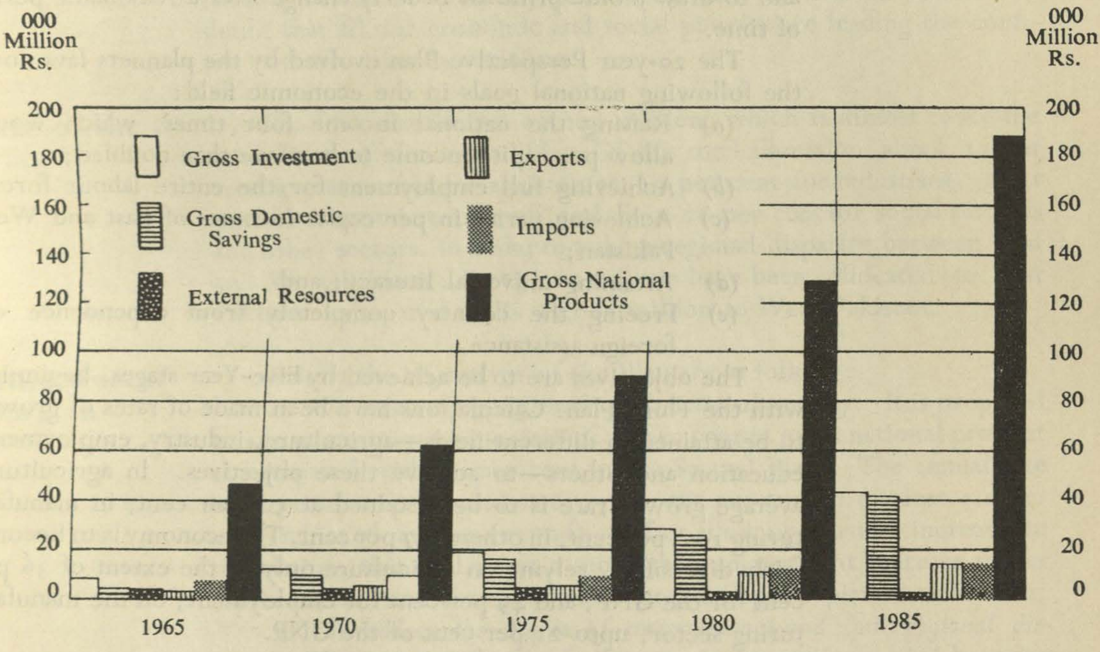
(*b*) To create an effective nucleus of planning and development at the local level, and to associate a much larger segment of the population in the country's development effort.

(*c*) To create a rural infra-structure, such as roads, bridges, irrigation canals, flood protection embankments, drinking water supplies facilities, etc.

(*d*) To raise additional monetary and manpower resources for development, which may be difficult to mobilise for central programmes and may be available for local projects through taxation or voluntary labour.

The Programme made substantial progress in achieving its objectives, particularly those pertaining to employment, the creation of rural infra-structure, and participation of the rural masses in development programmes. It has also contributed greater vigour to the working of Basic Democracies. The need for developing effective institutions for planning and development in the rural areas was keenly felt. In the absence of such institutions the association of the rural population with the development effort could not be enlisted and economic progress had tended to be confined to big cities

LONG TERM GROWTH FRAME WORK
1964—65 Prices
GROWTH DURING PERSPECTIVE PLAN



Source: Third Five-Year Plan

and urban areas. The Basic Democracies institution, now helped by this vast programme, have begun correcting the situation.

PERSPECTIVE PLAN (1965-85)

The 20-year Perspective Plan beginning in 1965 has converted aspirations into planned, achievable goals. It has laid down clear directions for national economic policies.

The First and Second Five-Year Plans helped to perfect the planning machinery, to build up confidence and experience, generate popular support and participation, and to create the necessary infrastructure for future growth. The Second Plan had also achieved a sustained growth in the gross national product at roughly double the rate of increase in population. The stage was thus set for more ambitious long-term planning. It was possible now to define long-range economic goals, formulate a clear-cut economic philosophy, and to draw a blue-print for orderly change over a reasonable period of time.

The 20-year Perspective Plan evolved by the planners lays down the following national goals in the economic field:

(*a*) Raising the national income four times, which would allow per capita income to be more than doubled;
(*b*) Achieving full employment for the entire labour force;
(*c*) Achieving parity in per capita incomes of East and West Pakistan;
(*d*) Attaining universal literacy; and
(*e*) Freeing the country completely from dependence on foreign assistance.

The objectives are to be achieved by Five-Year stages, beginning with the Third Plan. Calculations have been made of rates of growth to be attained in different fields—agriculture, industry, employment, education and others—to achieve these objectives. In agriculture, average growth rate is to be sustained at 5.6 per cent, in manufacturing 10.2 per cent, in others 7.7 per cent. The economy is to become fairly diversified, relying on agriculture only to the extent of 36 per cent for the GNP, and 49 per cent for employment; on the manufacturing sector, upto 21 per cent of the GNP.

***THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN 1965-70**

The Third Five-Year Plan is the first to be formulated explicitly within the frame-work of the Perspective Plan. As the Plan document states, the strategy of this Plan flows from the lessons learnt from planned development during the past 15 years on the one hand, and the targets set for the next 20 years under the Perspective Plan on the other.

The philosophy underlying economic growth in the country was outlined in the Foreword to the Plan by President Ayub Khan. He said: "The ultimate aim of all our efforts in the economic and

*The Third Five-Year Plan has subsequently been revised. For summary of the Plan see Appendix.

social spheres can only be to move speedily towards the attainment of Islamic socialism in Pakistan. The term Islamic socialism is almost interchangeable with welfare state. In addition to the familiar welfare goals, Islamic socialism implies that the cultural and religious heritage of the country should be preserved and not allowed to be destroyed by a ruthless pursuit of economic development." The Deputy Chairman of the Planning Commission in his Preface elaborated this by saying: "Economic development always entails profound social changes, the speed of which varies according to the attitude of the community and its political leadership towards change. It can be brought about either through a radical revolution or in a slower evolutionary manner. Pakistan has adopted the latter course in order to avoid excessive hardships and possible errors of radicalism. As a result, even when our ultimate goals are not so rigidly defined because of the evolutionary philosophy that we follow, there is no doubt that all our economic and social policies are leading the country towards Islamic socialism."

Size of the Plan

The Plan size is Rs 52,000 million, which is almost twice the expenditure of the Second Plan. Of this total allocation, about 13 per cent are earmarked for agriculture, 29 per cent for industries, 33 per cent for economic overheads, and about 26 per cent for social services and other sectors. In order to reduce regional disparity between East and West Pakistan, Rs 27,000 million have been allocated to East Pakistan compared to Rs 25,000 million to West Pakistan.

Objectives of the Plan

Briefly the objectives of the Plan are as follows:

1. *To attain a rapid growth of the national economy.* It is proposed to aim at a minimum increase of 37 per cent in gross national product as compared with 29 per cent in the Second Plan. The annual rate of increase is projected at 6.5 per cent per annum (against 5.2 per cent achieved in the Second). After allowing for the increase in population, this will mean a more than 20 per cent increase in per capita income and a 10 per cent increase in per capita consumption.

2. *To reduce the degree of inter-regional and intra-regional disparity.* The existing level of disparity in income per head between East and West Pakistan will be reduced by increasing total income by 40 per cent and 35 per cent respectively in the two regions.

3. *To expand the employment market.* At least 5.5 million new job opportunities will be created during the period to absorb the entire increase in the labour force and reduce the existing level of unemployment by over one-sixth.

4. *To strengthen the balance of payments position.* This will be done by increasing the country's foreign exchange earnings at a rate faster than GNP and by driving ahead with import substitution. It is expected that the country's earnings of foreign exchange will reach a level of Rs 4,800 million by 1970 compared with about Rs 3,050 million at the end of the Second Plan.

5. *To develop basic industries for the manufacture of producer goods.* The purpose is that the requirements of further industrialisation should be met mainly from the country's own resources. Certain industries like fertiliser and cement are required by the expanding domestic demand, and the country possesses natural raw materials for their development. Similarly petro-chemical industries will be based on the country's abundant natural gas resources. The annual growth rate in this sector is to be maintained at 10 per cent.

6. *To accelerate the development in agriculture.* It is planned to raise growth rate from 3.4 per cent per annum in the Second Plan to 5 per cent in the Third Plan. Accordingly, over 40 per cent of the total Plan expenditure is devoted directly or indirectly to the development of agriculture. Water availability will be increased by about 35 per cent in West Pakistan through a massive programme of irrigation and reclamation. Fertiliser distribution is expected to go up three times as the state subsidy, at gradually declining rates, will continue. Considerable expansion is envisaged in the number of private tube-wells in West Pakistan and low lift-pump irrigation in East Pakistan. There will be extension of credit facilities, improvement in marketing arrangements, and establishment of support prices for certain crops.

7. *To arrest the growth of population.* Intense, widespread effort is to be made for population control. The size of allocation for this Plan period is Rs 166 million against Rs 30.5 million for the previous one.

8. *To provide better housing, more health services, and greater facilities for education.* Especial emphasis in all these spheres is to be laid on provisions for the lower income groups. Accordingly education has received an allocation 165 per cent higher than that of the Second Plan, and health 200 per cent higher.

9. *To ensure better distribution of wealth, opportunities, and other benefits.* Numerous proposals are made in the Plan for dispersing the ownership of industrial capital, for encouraging newcomers into fresh industrial ventures, for preventing the formation of cartels and monopolies, for developing a sensible wage policy which passes on to the worker a share in the benefits of his increased productivity, and for reviewing the role of the public sector in future economic development.

10. *To press forward towards certain specific social objectives.* These include reducing inequalities in the distribution of income, wealth and economic power, providing social security, and promoting social and cultural changes conducive to accelerated economic expansion.

Resources

The mobilisation of resources of the Third Plan, because of its ambitious size, has demanded great effort. Firstly, it has been expected to save about 22 per cent of the additional income (the same proportion as was saved in the Second Plan). This will still allow

per capita income to increase by Rs 63 during the Third Plan period as compared to Rs 31 in the Second Plan, because the economic base will expand. Secondly, the Plan has suggested an export target of Rs 4,800 million for 1969-70 compared to foreign exchange earnings of about Rs 3,050 million in 1964-65. This represents an increase of 57 per cent in 5 years against 40 per cent expected during the Second Plan period.

The payment of foreign loans uses up about 10 per cent of export earnings at present and is likely to go up to 15 to 16 per cent by 1970. However, whereas at present Rs 2,700 million are left out of the country's own resources after paying the debt liability, and are available for financing its imports, the balance left in 1970 will be over Rs 4,000 million, despite a much higher level of debt repayment. This is because of the great rise expected in the country's exports.

In addition to financing the entire non-development imports from its own earnings the country will be able to afford another Rs 7,000 million or above for development imports out of its own earnings during the Third Plan period.

First Year of the Third Plan

The Third Plan period began on an inauspicious note. In its very first month, July 1965, came the postponement, for non-economic reasons, of the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium meeting, on the suggestion of the USA. This froze the flow of foreign resources needed for development. Then, just two months later, India attacked Pakistan and a full-scale war ensued. Both these happenings seemed replete with serious economic ramifications. In the event, however, on account of the momentum it had gained in the preceding years and some quick measures taken by the Government, the economy stood up to the crises much better than could be expected.

To begin with, the mobilisation of additional resources and economy-cuts in administrative expenditure made it possible to avoid diversion of internal financial resources from development to defence. Secondly, low priority projects were cut down and construction activities were brought to the minimum to keep the essential development programme in tact. Credit controls were relaxed and other measures taken to stimulate investment activity. Exports were pushed up, imports cut down and new credit and barter agreements reached to relieve the payment position.

These measures could not altogether preclude the effects of the events mentioned, but they did minimise them. The net results were as follows:

(*a*) Investment activity slackened. The Plan had provided that 16 per cent of the five year outlay would be utilised in the first year; actually only 13 per cent was utilised. Owing to the reduced external aid the public sector expenditure had to be reduced by over a thousand million rupees and in the private sector the shortfall was about half that much. On the whole the decline in investment

activity was 8 per cent.

(*b*) The growth rate in agriculture was about 2.4 per cent, against the expected average rate of 5 per cent over the Plan period, and the actual achievement of 3.5 per cent in the Second Plan. This was partly due to canal closure by India and partly due to the loss of *rabi* crops caused by drought and damage to cotton caused by pest, in West Pakistan.

(*c*) The gross national product increased by about 5.2 per cent against the target of 6.5 per cent for the Plan period, and of 5.7 per cent achieved during the Second Plan.

Although the planners had to modify the first year development programme in the light of new conditions, they did not consider it necessary to make any vital changes in the Plan as a whole: no targets have been cut down, and there is optimism about their complete achievement.

TABLE 8
PHYSICAL TARGETS OF THIRD PLAN

Sector	Unit	Benchmark Production 1964-65	Target for 1969-70
AGRICULTURE			
Rice	Thousand tons	11,400	14,445
Wheat	-do-	4,157	5,464
Maize	-do-	505	786
Other food grains	-do-	738	770
Total food grains	-do-	*16,800*	*21,465*
Gram	-do-	650	738
Pulses	-do-	360	495
Sugarcane	-do-	20,750	28,300
Oil seeds	-do-	1,177	1,827
Fruits and vegetables	-do-	4,450	5,815
Jute	Thousand bales	6,200	8,000
Cotton	-do-	2,217	3,520
Tea	Million pounds	64	74
Tobacco	-do-	233	273
INDUSTRY			
Food Manufacturing			
White sugar	Thousand tons	312	640
Vegetable ghee	-do-	90	140
Cigarettes	Millions	18,500	30,000
Textiles			
Cotton yarns	Million pounds	520	720
Jute manufactures			
Hessian and sacking	Thousand tons	331	800
Broad loom products	-do-	10	120

Note : Dash (—) in either column of production means nil ; NA means the figure is not available.

Sector	Unit	Benchmark Production 1964-65	Target for 1969-70
Paper and Boards			
Writing, printing and packing			
Paper	Thousand tons	47	100
Board	-do-	27	100
Newsprint and mechanical paper	-do-	42	100
Cement	-do-	2,000	6,000
Steel	Thousand ingot tons	Negligible	1,200
Chemical Industries			
Nitrogenous fertilisers (in terms of ammonium sulphate)	Thousand tons	550	2,500
Phosphatic fertilisers (in terms of triple superphosphate)	-do-	7	550
Soda ash	-do-	28	172
Caustic soda	-do-	15	90
Sulphuric acid	-do-	16	600
Petro-chemicals	-do-	—	329
Electrical Machinery			
Wires and cables	Thousand tons	4	35
Heavy electrical equipment	Million rupees	NA	120
Machinery			
Machine tools and heavy machinery (complex)	Million rupees	NA	262
Fuels and Minerals			
Natural gas	Thousand millions c.f.	80	200
Coal	Thousand tons	1,500	3,000
Sea salt	-do-	290	450
Rock salt	-do-	215	400
Chromite	-do-	20	50
Silica sand	-do-	25	50
Limestone	-do-	2,800	7,000
Gypsum	-do-	240	660
Crude Petroleum	Million imperial Gallons	140	200
WATER			
Irrigated area	Million acres	27.1	32.7
Water availability (West Pakistan)	Million acre feet	68.0	91.0
POWER			
Installed generation capacity	Megawatts	1,435.30	2,888
Villages electrified	Number	3,087*	9,087†
TRANSPORT			
Railways			
Locomotives (steam)	Number	1,045	880
Locomotives (diesel/electric)	Number	418	638

*Figure for Second Plan. †Total upto end of Third Plan.

Sector	Unit	Benchmark Production 1964-65	Target for 1969-70
Passenger carriages	Number	3,461	3,872
Other coaching vehicles	Number	1,901	2,049
Wagons	Number	56,787	62,267
Road Transport			
Buses	Number	17,200	23,950
Trucks	Number	34,900	48,500
High Type road	Miles	13,300	15,700
Shipping			
Port traffic	Million tons	12.70	17.00
Ships	Number	52	98
COMMUNICATIONS			
Telephones	Number	135,000	295,000
Post offices	Number	11,800	13,800
PHYSICAL PLANNING AND HOUSING			
Outline development Plans	Number	—	45†
Establishment of housing and building research centres	Number	1*	2†
House Building Corporation	Number	—	2†
Savings and Loan Building Association	Number	—	2†
Establishment of Physical Planning Institute	Number	—	2†
Development of residential plots	Number	150,000*	350,000†
Establishment of building trade school	Number	3	10
Establishment of industrial workers housing corporation	Number	—	2
Establishment of co-operative housing institutes, Lahore and Dacca	Number	—	2
Preparation of urban and regional development plans	Number	5	33
Houses built in public, semi-public and private sectors	Number	150,000*	292,500†
Water supply and sewerage arrangements for urban area	Number	30	60
Handpumps/tube-wells	Number	148,000	200,000
Villages	Number	104	500

*Figure for Second Plan. †Figure for Third Plan.

Sector	Unit	Benchmark Production 1964-65	Target for 1969-70
EDUCATION AND TRAINING			
Primary schools	Thousand	62.50	108.50
Improvement of primary schools	Thousand	9.10	47.60
Children, primary stage	Million	7.30	13.10
Annual output of primary school teachers	Thousand	19.00	40.00
Children at lower secondary stage	Million	1.04	2.00
Engineering colleges/ universities	Number	7	10
Annual intake capacity of engineering colleges and universities	Thousand	1.63	3.00
Annual intake capacity of polytechnics	Thousand	4.10	14.00
Annual intake capacity of vocational schools	Thousand	8.30	50.00
HEALTH			
Doctors	Number	15,600	19,800
Nurses	Number	3,600	5,400
Nurses training centres	Number	18	24
Lady health visitors	Number	1,047	2,750
Training centres for lady health visitors	Number	8	10
Hospital beds	Number	35,500	48,300
Rural health centres	Number	200	860
Medical colleges	Number	12	14
T.B. clinics	Number	96	166
SOCIAL WELFARE			
Training, research and administration	No. of projects	20	162
Urban community development	-do-	77	120
Medical social work	-do-	24	60
Family and child welfare	-do-	17	58
Youth work and recreational services	-do-	20	58
Rehabilitation of physically and socially handicapped	-do-	16	73
Delinquent and probation	-do-	16	18
MANPOWER TRAINING AND LABOUR			
Pilot projects for employment, promotion, training of self-employed, and construction workers.	Number	—	8

Sector	Unit	Benchmark Production 1964-65	Target for 1969-70
Training centres for skilled labour, including ex-servicemen	Number	6	22
Seamen's training ship/centre	Number	—	2
Apprenticeship training advisory offices	Number	7	18
Employment exchanges	Number	20	37
Mines rescue station	Number	—	2
Films for workers' education	Number	12	52
Social security institutions	Number	—	2
Labour welfare centres	Number	23	60

Source : *Planning Commission*

APPENDIX

Revision of Third Plan

The postponement of the Consortium meeting announced in July, 1965 and the outbreak of hostilities with India in September 1965, necessitated a substantial reduction in the Annual Development Programme for 1965-66 and the phasing of development expenditure envisaged in the Plan. These events also indicated the need for a fresh look at the resources picture and for a review of inter-sectoral priorities. A number of detailed studies led to the following main conclusions:

(*a*) It would be possible to maintain the size, basic objectives and main targets of the Plan, but because of the short fall of the first-year it would be necessary to revise the annual phasing of the Plan outlay.

(*b*) It would be desirable to reduce the gap between the gross allocations of Rs. 34,500 million and net allocations of Rs. 30,000 million to sharpen the focus on priorities, and against any further unexpected shortfall in resources.

(*c*) It would be necessary to revise the sectoral priorities in the light of changed circumstances.

In December 1966, the National Economic Council finally approved the revised phasing, sectoral priorities and allocations of the Plan. These revisions are explained in the following paragraphs:

Phasing

The actual expenditure during the first year of the Third Plan (1965-66) was about 21 per cent less than originally contemplated in the Plan. The shortfall was larger in the public sector where resources were adversely affected both on account of reduced flow of foreign assistance and la ger defence expenditure.

With the help of additional taxtion imposed in November 1965 and again in the budget for 1966-67, it was possible to practically regain the level of development expenditure contemplated by the Plan for the second year of the Plan. It was, however, necessary to recast the annual phasing of the Plan in order to attain the Plan targets of investment by accelerating public sector outlays at a faster pace in subsequent years. The original and the revised phasing of the Third Plan by public and private sectors is given in table at page 144.

The proposed annual acceleration of development expenditure will be much higher than that proposed in the original Plan (14.2 per cent as against 11.0 per cent). This rate of acceleration appeared feasible in the light of the experience of the Second Plan when development expenditure increased at an annual rate of 18 per cent.

Strategy

The main objective of revisions in the Plan priorities was to secure the desired acceleration in the growth of the economy with lower level of total investment. This is to be achieved by concentrating on agriculture, by a fuller utilisation of installed capacity and by

TABLE
REVISED
PHASING OF
THIRD PLAN

million rupees

Year	*Government Financed Sector* *Original Phasing*	*Revised Phasing*	*Private Sector* *Original Phasing*	*Revised Phasing*	*Total* *Original Phasing*	*Revised Phasing*
1964-65	4,250	3,970	3,180	3,390	7,430	7,360
1965-66	4,700	3,420	3,700	3,700	8,400	7,120
1966-67	5,300	5,000	4,050	4,000	9,350	9,000
1967-68	6,000	6,000	4,350	4,300	10,350	10,300
1968-69	6,700	7,100	4,700	4,800	11,400	11,900
1969-70	7,300	8,480	5,200	5,200	12,500	13,680
1965-70	30,000	30,000	22,000	22,000	52,000	52,000
Annual Compound growth rate (1964-65 to 1969-70)	11.4	16.2	10.4	11.6	11.0	14.2

postponing or reducing import intensive or capital intensive investment.

The basic element in the agricultural development programme is the adoption of improved technology based upon the use of better seeds, application of fertiliser and the availability of water. Unlike industry, the adoption of improved technology in agricutlure does not require heavy capital investment. The immediate task in agriculture is to motivate the farmer to use better seed and fertilisers and to ensure that these inputs are available at the right place and the right time. He has also to be assured a fair return for his produce. Keeping these factors in view, significant changes in the organisational, institutional and policy framework for agriculture have already been initiated.

The industrial strategy of the Plan is also being reoriented to concentrate on a policy of consolidation based on a fuller utilisation of installed capacity coupled with a selective expansion of industries geared to the export market and the agriculture sector. This policy will imply a more cautious approach where commitment of sizable resources is involved in new field or where further expansion of capacity is likely to increase dependence on imported raw materials. It will, however, be accompanied by an ambitious programme to develop skills in sophisticated industries visualized in the Plan.

Simultaneouly an effort has been made to attain a high growth rate in exports. In part this follows from a greater emphasis on agriculture where, despite primary emphasis on food self-sufficiency, the rate of growth visualized is large enough to allow a substantial

expansion of exports. However, a large part of the expansion must come from the manufacturing sector. In the first two years of the Third Plan manufactured exports have increased by 34 per cent per annum and as a result, total exports have risen at a rate of 12.5 per cent per annum compared to the Plan target of 9.5 per cent. The revised Plan priorities attempt to consolidate and expand these gains.

Both in agriculture and industry the programmes have thus been readjusted to protect the growth rate despite some reductions in financial outlays. This improvement in capital output ratio to be achieved by postponing long-gestation projects, greater use of improved technology for the development of agriculture and a fuller utilization of installed industrial capacity will be the corner-stone of Pakistan's new development strategy.

Resources

The Third Five-Year Plan had estimated that the total Plan outlay of Rs 52,000 million would be financed to the extent of Rs 16,000 million or 32 per cent by foreign assistance and 68 per cent by domestic resources. The estimate of domestic resources for the public sector programme of Rs 30,000 million was Rs 16,050 million or 55 per cent.

The Plan period began with some uncertainty regarding the level and timing of foreign assistance. The availability of fresh pledges in the first two years of the Plan from Consortium sources was about 40 per cent less than expected in the Plan but a part of the shortfall was made up by larger assistance from non-Consortium sources. If the level of assistance in the next three years is restored to that originally anticipated, total pledges during the Plan period would be almost equal to the original projections although actual disbursements may be about Rs 1,000 million less than those estimated in the Plan because of the reduction in commitments in the first two years of the Plan. The country's export prospects are, however, more favourable than originally expected. Larger exports will provide some cushion against any short fall in foreign assistance.

The domestic resources position was adversely affected by reduced inflow of foreign assistance in the first year of the Plan and the growth rate fell short of projections during the first two years. There was also an unavoidable increase in defence expenditure in the first year. Various fiscal measures were introduced to mobilise larger domestic resources in the public sector, through additional taxation, economies in non-development expenditure and various other saving schemes. These measures are likely to raise about Rs 4,000 million of additional resources over and above the Plan projections. The realisation from additional taxation imposed in the first two years is expected to be over Rs 6,000 million compared to the Plan target of Rs 3,000 million. Another Rs 1,000 million are expected from defence bonds, defence fund and economies in non-developmnet expenditure.

TABLE
REVISED ESTIMATES OF RESOURCES

million rupees

	Plan Estimate	Revised Projections
Surplus on Revnue Account		
Centre	7,930	5,830
East Pakistan	380	1,215
West Pakistan	290	1,370
Additional Taxation	3,000	*
Possible additional Taxation in the remaining 3 years	—	900
Total:	11,600	9,315
Net Capital Receipts		
Centre	550	1,265
East Pakistan	580	680
West Pakistan	1,270	1,240
Total:	2,400	3,185
Deficit financing	1,500	3,000†
Possible additional resources	1,000	1,000
Total: Domestic Resources.	16,500	16,500

*The revised estimate of revenue surplus includes the likely realisation from additional taxation imposed in 1965-66 and 1966-67.

†This includes Rs 1,700 million of defict financing already incurred in the first two years of the Plan.

Sectional Allocations

The revised sectoral allocations compared to the original Plan allocations are shown in table at page 147.

The inter-sector adjustments are based on the revised order of priorities and the new strategy outlined above and do not imply any significant change in the Plan's physical targets. In some cases these targets may be exceeded by more efficient implementation and fuller utilisation of existing facilities. The revisions will also improve internal consistency of sectoral programmes.

The Plan phasing as now revised fully reflects the Government's policy of aceelerating agricultural production and attempt to attain self-sufficiency in food by the end of the Plan period.

The operational size of the public sector programme has been reduced from Rs 34,500 million to Rs 31,000 million. The net size of the programme, however, remains Rs 30,000 million. The Annual Development Programme would continue to be used as a flexible instrument for the implementation of the public sector programme. The size of the ADP would be determined from year to year in the light of a detailed review of resources and the general economic situation.

TABLE
SECTIONAL ALLOCATIONS

million rupees

Sector	*Original Plan allocation, May, 1965.*	*Revised allocation December, 1966*
Agriculture	4,670	4,115
Water and Power	8,400	8,047
Industry, Fuels and Minerals	5,160	4,105
Transport and Communications	6,460	6,711
Physical Planning and Housing	3,025	2,477
Education and Training	2,730	2,374
Health	1,330	1,175
Social Welfare	125	90
Manpower	100	86
Works Programme	2,500	1,820
Total:	34,500	31,000
Expected Shortfall	4,500	1,000
Total (Net)	30,000	30,000

Regional Allocation

An important objective of the Third Plan is to accelerate the tempo of development in East Pakistan, and to move further towards the objective of elimination of regional disparities in per capita incomes. The Plan suggested that out of Rs 30,000 million development outlay by the Government, Rs 16,000 million should be spent in East Pakistan, giving that wing an edge of Rs 2,000 million. This edge in favour of East Pakistan has been retained and slightly improved in revised allocation. In the revised operation programme of Rs 31,000 million, Rs 16,600 million has been allocated to East Pakistan and Rs 14,400 million to West Pakistan. East Pakistan's share is thus 53.5 per cent.

The Government of East Pakistan would be directly responsible for carrying out a development programme of Rs 14,390 million against Rs 12,000 million of the Government of West Pakistan. The Central Government's expenditure of Rs 4,610 million would be almost equally divided between the two provinces—Rs 2,210 million in East Pakistan and Rs 2,400 million in West Pakistan.

7. AGRICULTURE

Agriculture, with its branches of animal and crop husbandry, forestry, fisheries and horticulture, is the largest segment of Pakistan's economy. The bulk of the 85 per cent population living in rural areas is dependent on it for livelihood; it contributes nearly half of the gross national product; and it earns more than half of the country's foreign exchange.

The happy features of Pakistan's agriculture are the fertile soil of the country, a generally favourable climate, and a most elaborate network of irrigation. There are, on the other hand, some unhappy aspects also: such as low crop yield per acre, uncertainty of weather conditions, recurring floods, and incidence of large-scale water-logging and salinity. The last named factors have been taking a heavy yearly toll of crops and acreage. Finally, mechanisation of farming is still in its early stages.

Government has given to agriculture its due place in development strategy. The growth rate in this sector was below the population growth rate upto the fifties; a concerted effort was made so that it nearly tripled in the first half of the sixties, and is now expected to more than quadruple in the second half.

LAND UTILISATION

Pakistan has a total land area of 234 million acres; of this, 29 per cent is under cultivation and a further substantial acreage is considered potentially suited for cultivation. About one-fifth of the cultivated area is put under crops more than once in a year, mostly in East Pakistan. Some 10.3 million acres are under forest.

Recently, under the Second Five-Year Plan, and now in the Third, a number of irrigation and reclamation projects have been undertaken. As a result it is estimated that by 1970 the total cropped area will be about 68½ million acres.

Fertility of the Soil

Except in the mountain regions, soil in both the wings of Pakistan is very suitable for crops. There are parts of the Indo-Gangetic plain which are flat, wide and spacious and covered with deep drifted soil. This soil is considered to be one of the most fertile in the world. In the deltaic areas of East Pakistan there are swamps and morasses of Sundarbans, where very little fresh water is available, and yet the soil, with rich mangrove vegetation and tall grasses growing plentifully, is fertile. In West Pakistan, in the river valleys, the rich drift soil is transported by great rivers arising from the Himalayas. Even the narrow valleys between high mountain ranges, as in the north west of West Pakistan and the Chittagong Hill Tracts in East Pakistan, are soaked with water and yield good crops. Silt and clay deposited from flood waters have made some of the best agricultural soils in the former Sind region in West Pakistan. One feature of alluvium from flood waters is that the soil is renewed every season and its fertility is thereby maintained. The rich loess soil is prominent in the Potwar plateau and Rawalpindi district. In the north-west both loess and sandy soils are found.

Problems of Land Utilisation

The main problem of land utilisation is the absence of manure and deterioration of the soil. Alkalinisation of land (locally called *thur*) and waterlogging (*sem*) together cause an annual loss of about 40,000 acres. Secondly, the supply of water is uneven, as a result of which not all the available land can be brought under the plough. In East Pakistan there is excess of water during the monsoon and not enough of it during winter. Crops suffer on both accounts. In the Western wing rainfall is scanty and, especially in the northern and western sectors, irrigation is a vital need.

CROP PRODUCTION

The major crops of Pakistan are classified into two broad categories, food crops and non-food crops. The food crops are rice, wheat, *bajra*, *jowar*, maize, barley and gram. The non-food crops

comprise jute, cotton, tea, tobacco, sugar-cane and the oil-seeds (linseed, rape-seed and mustard).

TABLE 9
PER CAPITA AVAILABILITY OF FOODGRAINS

Year (July-June)	Domestic Production (Million tons)	Allowance for seed, animal feed, wastage etc. 10% (million tons).	Imports (Million tons)	Exports (Million tons)	Available for consumption (Million tons) Cols, 2-3+4-5)	Population (in Million)	Per capita availability (ounces per day)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1947-48	11.73	1.173	.041	.067	10.531	75.531	14
1957-58	13.05	1.305	1.269	.004	13.010	94.49	14
1958-59	12.95	1.295	0.743	.024	12.374	96.66	13
1964-65	17.60	1.760	1.735	.181	17.390	112.41	15

Source : *Central Statistical Office.*

NOTE: Production data include rice, wheat, barley, maize, bajra and jowar. Population figures are based on estimates of the Planning Commission.

Food

Pakistan is not yet self-sufficient in food, and has to import some quantities of wheat from the USA, Canada and Australia and rice from Burma and China. Shortage in the Eastern wing, of about 10 per cent of its production, is also made up in part by supplies from the Western wing. Bad weather, when it occurs, upsets an already precarious balance and increases requirement. Self-sufficiency in food, however, is a primary agricultural target.

About three-quarters of the cropped area is under rice and wheat, and all the other crops, including the major foreign exchange earners like jute and cotton, occupy only the remaining one quarter. Moreover, the productivity is also being continually stepped up through better seed, increasing use of fertilisers, greater irrigation facilities, intensive cultivation, plant protection measures, and improved methods of farming. As a result of these measures, the production during 1964-65, for instance, marked an increase of as much as 27 per cent over the figures of five years ago.

Rice

Pakistan is a major rice producing country, ranking third in the world. Producing some of the finest qualities, she also exports some of it abroad. The present exports of rice fetch upto Rs 200 million in foreign exchange annually.

Over 26 million acres or about 38 per cent of the total cropped area of Pakistan is under rice, most of it in the Eastern wing. It is the staple food of 56 per cent of the population, the bulk of it again made up of the people of East Pakistan. There has usually been an annual increase in the area (nearly 3 per cent during

1964-65), but this remains limited partly due to competition from jute cultivation and partly because of the ascension of flood waters. The annual production is now nearly 12 million tons, an increase of 23 per cent in five years. The autumn crop of 1965-66 has shown a further increase of 18.5 per cent over the previous crop. This has been especially due to increased productivity, which now stands at about 12½ maunds per acre.

The yield per acre is still very low compared with countries like Portugal, Italy, Spain and Japan. Research and studies are going on. Improved methods of irrigation and cultivation have been introduced and it has been found that by proper application of chemical fertilisers the yield can be increased by three to five times. Highly effective insecticides and pesticides are also being used.

The conditions under which the crop is grown vary greatly, for it is grown in nearly 500 varieties. Three crops are harvested in East Pakistan as against one in West Pakistan. *Aus* is the autumn paddy sown during March-June and harvested in July-September; *aman*, the winter paddy, is also sown in March-June but harvested during November-December; *boro*, the summer paddy, is sown in July-August, transplanted in November-December in muddy river banks (from where water has receded) and harvested in March-May. The three crops do not necessarily occupy the same land but sometimes double cropping is arranged. Normally only one crop is grown in a year, but there are parts where two rice crops are grown, and recently some farmers have produced even three crops. Generally, the highest per acre yield come from the *boro* crop and the lowest from the *aus*. Nearly 70 per cent of the total acreage and production of the Eastern wing is of the former variety, and the latter makes up less than 5 per cent.

The superior rice procured by Government for export is first cleared of milling defects, such as broken components, admixture of off-quality grains, husk and extraneous matter like stones and dirt. To do this four cleaning plants (three at Karachi and one at Pipri) have been set up which clean upto 600 tons of rice every day. A Central Cereal Laboratory tests the quality of rice procured for export. It carries out physical and chemical analysis of milling tests on rice and wheat.

Wheat

Wheat comes next to rice in area as well as in production: Pakistan is the fourth biggest producer of wheat in Asia. It is the staple food of the people of West Pakistan, where the bulk of it is grown; the climate of the Eastern wing is too warm and wet for this crop. The production of wheat in 1964-65 was over 4½ million tons. The area under its cultivation according to recent statistics is well over 13 million acres, that is nearly one-third of the total area under cultivation in West Pakistan. Both the acreage and production have, like other crops, been continually increasing, and greater yields per acre are being achieved. Area and production in 1964-65 have

increased by 8 per cent and 17 per cent respectively compared with 1959-60. However, as noted, the country is not yet self-sufficient in wheat and a substantial quantity has to be imported annually, chiefly from the USA under the PL 480 programme. Every endeavour is being made to overcome the shortage by raising production. The target for 1966-67 is five million tons, the highest so far.

The crop is mostly sown during autumn and harvested in spring. Late sowings and harvesting may continue into January and May respectively. In crop rotation, it follows upon cotton, maize, sugarcane or even gram. Normally 4 to 5 ploughings in irrigated and 5 to 8 in *barani* (rainfed) areas are given for preparatory tillage, but when wheat follows maize, the time is short and one or two ploughings are considered enough. After sowing, generally 3 to 4 irrigations are applied, the first after 4 to 6 weeks of sowing and the others at 3 to 4 weeks intervals thereafter. Fertiliser, when needed, consists of ammonium sulphate or farm yard manure.

Other Food Crops

Other food crops include gram, *bajra*, *jowar*, maize and barley. The area under these crops is now nearly 9 million acres. It has been increasing over the past years: 12 per cent during 1964-65. The increase in production is even higher, due mainly to improved cropping patterns, increased use of fertilisers, insecticides and better seeds.

Gram is produced in both the provinces. As a food crop it occupies the third position, both in area and production, after rice and wheat. Two-thirds of the produce comes from the upper Indus plains. In the Eastern wing the Padma-Jamuna Doab is its home.

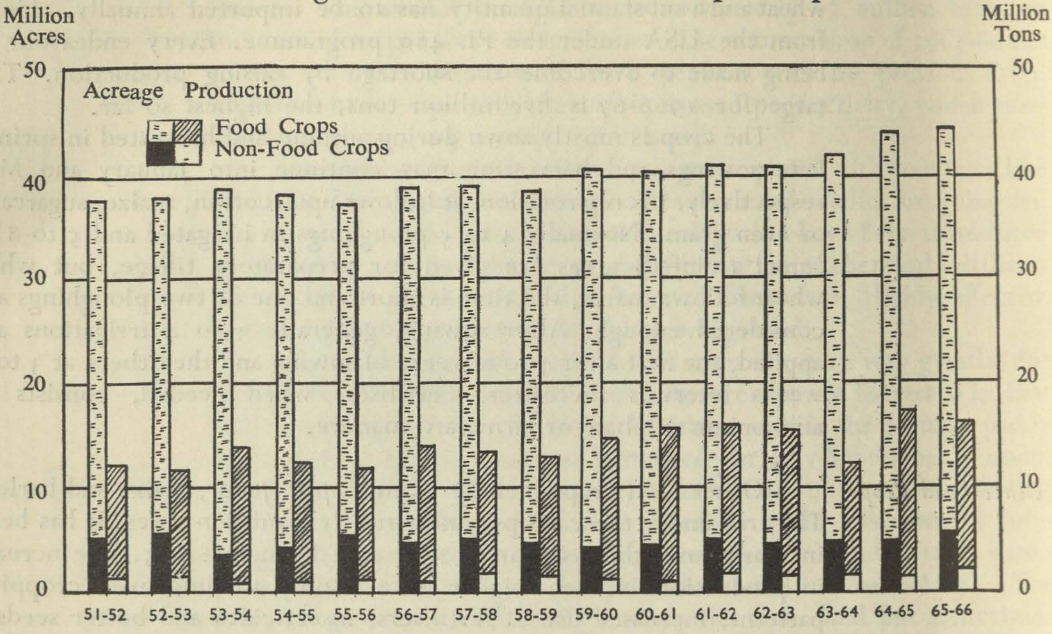
Bajra belongs to the family of millets and is generally eaten by the poor or is fed to cattle. It is grown in light soil and in a moderate type of climate, with plenty of sunshine. The plains produce nearly 45 per cent of the total output, and nearly 20 per cent comes from the districts of Hyderabad, Nawabshah and Tharparkar. The area under *bajra* is below 10 per cent of the total area under foodgrains, and annual production is about half a million tons.

Jowar is another variety of millet which mainly forms the poor man's diet or is fed to cattle. It requires more fertile soil than *bajra* and grows best in medium and heavy soil. Like *bajra*, it is mainly produced in the Western wing, with the Indus plains as the important centre, including Dadu, Sukkur, Jacobabad and Nawabshah. It covers an area of 1½ million acres, and the production is about 300,000 tons.

Maize is grown throughout Pakistan and apart from human consumption it has an increasing demand from the starch, glucose and oil manufacturing industries. It is also fed to cattle in its green state. It requires good heat and moisture, less than rice but more than wheat. The main area of maize production is the northern half of West Pakistan, which accounts for nearly 96 per cent of the total production. The area under this crop was about 1.4 million acres in 1965-66 and the production was 534,000 tons.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

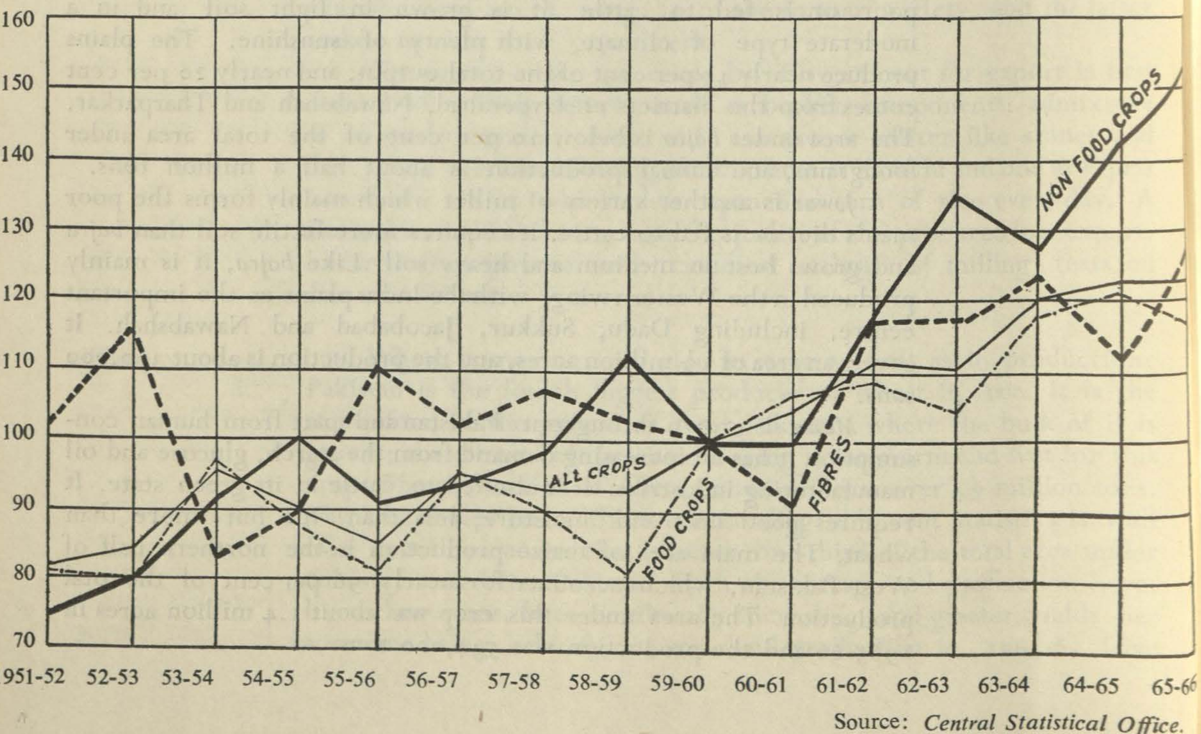
Acreage and Production of Principal Crops



Source: *Central Statistical Office.*

INDEX OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

(1959-60=100)



Source: *Central Statistical Office.*

Barley is a most ancient foodgrain and was used for making bread before the discovery of wheat. In certain parts of the country this too is the staple food of the poor. Mainly grown in the Western wing, it covers about half a million acres and the production is 128,000 tons.

Pulses: A large number of pulses are also grown in the country and form an important nutrient in human diet. Their cultivation also forms an invaluable phase in many rotations, helping to maintain the fertility of the soil. The total area under pulses is less than 5 million acres, of which over 70 per cent is in West Pakistan. The total production is around 0.9 million tons.

Non-food Crops

The important non-food crops are jute, cotton, tea, tobacco and sugarcane. The first two are important foreign exchange earners. With the setting up of a large number of industrial units a substantial part of these crops, particularly of cotton, tobacco and oilseed, is consumed internally. 30 per cent of the jute is consumed locally and still occupies a most important place in the country's export trade. Except for cotton and sugarcane, the production of these crops, unlike that of foodgrains, has increased only marginally over the past years. The chief reason has been the increasing demand for foodgrains cultivation.

Jute

Pakistan is by far the world's largest producer of jute, supplying 75 to 80 per cent of world's requirements. At home 5 million farmer families cultivate jute and over 50,000 people are engaged in the industry.

The history of jute in the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent goes back to pre-historic times, and it is known that in 800 B.C. its leaves were used as food and medicine. Later on, the seventeenth century historian of the Mughal court, Abul Fazal, recorded jute prices and the revenues derived from it during his time. Although hand-woven jute goods had been in use for some time, it was not until the beginning of the 19th century that the jute industry started developing. The fibre was first spun into yarn in England during the year 1820 in Oxfordshire. At first, the spun yarn was used as cordage in agricultural processes and paper making. The next stage was making of rough fabrics for domestic uses, such as matting, bedding, etc. Large-scale commercial exploitation of it started much later, and when this happened it soon assumed a unique role as an industrial raw material. Now it is used for a variety of purposes: in transport, furnishings, decorations, packaging, and so on. Its merits are strength, durability, cheapness.

East Pakistan is the natural home of jute. The main area is in the valley of Brahmaputra and the largest acreage lies in the districts of Mymensingh, Dacca, Rangpur, Bogra and Pabna. The highest yield per acre is recorded in the northern parts.

Jute is grown on raised ground provided by old or new river

levels. In the depression, rice and jute are often rotated. The best quality of jute is obtained from loamy soils, and the calcareous soil gives the highest yield. A hot and damp climate in which there is not too much actual rain, especially in the early part of the season, is the best for its growth. The main jute manufactures are: hessian, sacking, bagging and tarpuline.

The crop is sown during March-May. As the plants grow, which they do quickly, weeding and thinning are carried on. The plants begin to flower in mid-July, and are harvested from late July to September. After the leaves are shed, the bundles are submerged in water for retting of the bark when microbes decompose plant material other than fibre. The fibres are then separated from each plant by hand, washed, cleaned and dried in the sun; and so are the separated 'jute sticks'.

The average yield of the dry fibre is 1,218 lbs. per acre.

Both acreage and production of jute fluctuate widely in response to the trends in the world market. They reached almost a peak in 1952-53 due to the boom caused by the Korean war; and the following slump caused a corresponding decline. Again, from 1.2 million acres in 1954 the area rose to over two million acres in 1962. During the year 1964-65 the production was nearly a million tons, and the target for 1966-67 is just a little above that, while the acreage is slightly under two million. This increase in production is to be achieved by the use of better seeds, control of pests and diseases, use of fertilisers, and improved methods of cultivation. Anticipating a gradual increase in world demand, Pakistan is trying to increase production, but without expanding the acreage.

For the regular supply of jute to the foreign market and for regularisation of prices, a Jute Board was set up as early as 1949. Later on a Central Jute Committee was also set up to deal with various aspects of jute production, especially agricultural and economic research and production and testing of seeds.

Cotton

Pakistan is recognised as an ancient home of cotton. Archaeological excavations of Moenjodaro (2350 B.C. to 1500 B.C.) have revealed that small pieces of fabric made from indigenous cotton were in use then, and local craftsmanship had achieved great proficiency. Centuries later, the weavers of Dacca attained international fame for their superb craftsmanship.

The cotton grown now in the Indus Basin has improved considerably by research, irrigation and new agronomical practices, and has achieved a very high order of purity. A number of varieties, chiefly of American origin, have been developed. Nearly 90 per cent of the production of cotton produce consists of these American varieties. Endeavours to increase the quality as well as quantity of the produce are continuing, and new and better strains are being developed.

Cotton is grown in well-defined belts extending from north to south along the Indus Basin in West Pakistan. The greatest concentration

of cotton cultivation is in the districts of Sahiwal, Multan, Lyallpur and Lahore. The other is the Sukkur barrage region where the districts of Sukkur, Larkana, Hyderabad and Khairpur are important.

The area under cotton, a little over 3 million acres at independence, has, like that of jute, fluctuated in accordance with the world situation. In 1965-66 it was a little under 4 million acres. The production was about 2.3 million bales (400,000 tons), and is now planned to be raised to over $3\frac{1}{2}$ million bales (600,000 tons) by 1970 at an average annual increase of 26,000 bales. The average yield of lint per acre is 239 lbs.

As the acreage under cotton is not likely to rise much in the near future (mainly because of strong competition from sugarcane) production is being increased by an extensive supply of improved seeds, fertilisers and pesticides.

Tea

Pakistan is one of the leading tea producing countries of the world. The eastern province offers ideal conditions (sub-tropical climate, heat and moisture and well drained light soil) for its growth along the lower slopes of the Himalayas, in the district of Sylhet, and in the hills of Chittagong and Tipperah. There are nearly 147 tea gardens today, about three-quarters of them owned and controlled by Europeans.

The tea industry of Pakistan suffered greatly because of the last World War. With a view to developing cultivation of tea, the Pakistan Tea Act was passed in 1950 to control the production and export of tea and to levy a cess; the import of fertiliser was arranged and the Second Five-Year Plan allowed the tea estates five million rupees worth of foreign exchange for their development. A tea research station was set up to help produce better grades of tea. A Pakistan Tea Association was also formed with an office in London. These and such other measures showed good results and the tea industry has developed rapidly, specially over the past two years, both in its production and capacity to stand foreign competition. The tea acreage, which has been increasing annually, is now nearly 92,000 acres. The production during 1965-66, a bumper crop, was about 60 million lbs.

Tea exports have, however, remained restricted because of increasing consumption at home.

Tobacco

Introduced in the subcontinent by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, tobacco is now one of the most important cash crops of Pakistan. It has made notable progress in the past years both in respect of quality and acreage. Being an extremely adaptable plant, tobacco is cultivated in practically all parts of the country, from the hilly and arid regions of the north-west to the sandy areas of the south of West Pakistan, and equally well in the rain drenched and riverine areas of East Pakistan. However, the commercial importance of the produce is greatly determined by the soil and climatic conditions in

which it is produced. The north-western part of West Pakistan produces the popular Virginia brand and the Eastern province grows a special variety which is very good for cigars.

The area under tobacco in 1965-66 was 253,000 acres (109,000 acres in East Pakistan and 144,000 acres in West Pakistan) with an average yield of 1,197 lbs. per acre.

Sugarcane

Sugarcane, the primary source of sugar, is grown on about 1.8 million acres, of which 1.49 million acres are in the Western wing. The production of sugarcane now stands at about 30 million tons, recording an increase of over 21 per cent during 1965-66 over the preceding year; since 1947, there has been a 170 per cent increase in area, and a 242 per cent increase in production. This great rise in production is due to the application of chemical fertilisers, vigorous plant protection measures, better water supply and, above all, fair cane prices fixed by the government.

Oil-seeds

Oil-seeds produced in Pakistan include groundnut, linseed, cotton-seed, sesamum, rape-seed, mustard and castor-seed.

Cotton-seed is the most important oilseed of Pakistan. It is grown chiefly in the Western province. It gives oil which is similar to that of olive, and is mainly used for manufacturing vegetable ghee. A small percentage of the produce is exported to foreign countries. With the increased production of cotton, the production of cottonseed has also gone up.

Linseed is grown chiefly in East Pakistan and covers 77 per cent of the total area under oil-seeds and accounts for 75 per cent of the total oil-seeds production. It is used for feeding cattle as it helps increase

TABLE 10

AREA AND PRODUCTION OF MAJOR CROPS

Crops	*Area (in thousand acres)*		*Production (in thousand tons)*	
	Average of 1955-60	1965-66	*Average of* 1955-60	1965-66
Rice	22,767	26,168	8,409	11,676
Wheat	11,741	13,167	3,644	3,908
Other Food Crops	8,103	8,107	1,839	1,836
Raw Jute (Bales of 400 lbs each)	1,466	2,090	5,954	6,364
Cotton	3,494	3,877	294	411
Tea	77	92	23	27
Sugarcane	1,161	1,873	13,975	29,836
Rape & Mustard	1,919	1,565	325	274
Sesamum	206	194	33	31
Tobacco	195	253	90	135

Source : *Deptt. of Marketing Intelligence & Agricultural Statistics.*

milk yield. The oil is useful for mixing colours for painting and making varnishes.

Sesamum (til) is mainly (77 per cent) produced in the Eastern province. It is an important oil-yielding seed and the oil is a popular cooking medium. The annual production is over 30 million rupees worth.

Rape- and mustard-seeds are grown throughout the country and their oils are also chiefly used for cooking and lighting purposes. The oil-cake is used as cattle feed and also as manure.

Castor-seed mostly grows wild on embankments near the canals. It is a commercial crop, important as a high class lubricant and has medicinal value.

Fruits

The estimated annual production of fruit is worth over ten million rupees. The total area under fruit in 1964-65 stood at 640,000 acres. Of this, 56.3 per cent was in West Pakistan and 43.7 per cent in East Pakistan. The total production of fruit was 2.7 million tons, out of which 42.6 per cent was in West Pakistan and 57.4 per cent in East Pakistan.

Among various fruits grown-mango forms 28.8 per cent of the total production, citrus fruits 26 per cent and banana 17 per cent. Banana production has increased the fastest of all (from 26,000 maunds in 1958 to 3.8 million maunds in 1965). Large quantities of it are now available for export. Citrus fruit production has also grown rapidly.

Large quantities of oranges, lemon, grapes and dates are grown in the former province of Punjab; apple, peaches, plums, almonds, walnuts and mulberry are produced in the north-western area of West Pakistan; and the best varieties of cherry, plums, apples, peaches and grapes are found in Baluchistan. In the Eastern province, famous fruits are the oranges of Sylhet, bananas of Munshiganj, and pineapples of the northern districts. Some of the best varieties of mangoes are also produced here. Other fruits include, figs, loquat, papaya, jackfruit, guava and a variety of nuts and berries.

The different kinds of soils found in the Indus Valley, the mountains and valleys of the north-western part of West Pakistan, the plateau of Baluchistan and in the whole of East Pakistan enable the country to grow such a variety of fruit. The mild humid climate and the alluvial soil of lower Sind has been found to favour the growing of several fruits other than its traditional ones. Experiments are continually being made for growing different alien varieties. With increasing markets for the country's fruits new areas are being brought under cultivation.

Vegetables

Some well-known vegetables of the country are cauliflower, tomatoes, cabbages, brinjals, peas and potatoes. Eighty-eight per cent of the vegetable area is under potatoes. East Pakistan produces 62.7 per cent of the chillies. Potatoes and onions, the most important of the vegetables in production, are marketed all the year round.

With the growth of cheap and rapid means of transportation and expansion of cold storage facilities, the cultivation of vegetables has been increasing.

LIVESTOCK

Livestock is an important sector of agriculture and accounts for about 20 per cent of its entire value. It plays an important role in providing proteinous food for the people. Livestock products serve as a basic raw material for various industries in Pakistan, such as hides and skins for the leather industry, wool for the wool manufacturing industry, etc. These raw materials are also exported in substantial quantities and are therefore earners of foreign exchange. Thirdly, cattle serve as a motive power for agricultural operations, such as ploughing of fields, irrigation through wells, carting and carrying of goods to the markets.

Census

An agriculture census was taken in 1960 when the following livestock position emerged:

Cattle	...	...	33.5 million
Buffaloes	...	...	8.4 ,,
Sheep	...	...	10.3 ,,
Goats	...	...	13.0 ,,
Poultry	...	...	30.1 ,,

The population of horses, donkeys, mules and camels was estimated as follows:

Horses	...	...	497,010
Donkeys	...	...	925,120
Mules	...	...	25,744
Camels	...	...	600,898
Pigs	...	...	94,000

East Pakistan has a larger cattle population; goats and horses are more numerous in West Pakistan. Goats are roughly equally distributed; mule, donkeys and camels are entirely confined to the Weste r wing.

Livestock Uses and Products

Pakistan has some of the best breeds of cattle, sheep, goats, horses and camels. The cattle are of two categories: milk and draught. The average yield of milk is, however, very low in comparison with other countries. The sheep are mostly found in We stPakistan, especially in the northern region andin Baluchistan and former Sind. The yield of wool per sheep per year is about 4lbs and is mostly used for carpet making. The goats mainly yield hair, skin and meat and some are good milkers. The best breed of horses are found in Baluchistan and former Punjab regions. The camels are found in the arid regions of West Pakistan, and are used for ploughing, transport and as pack-animals. Hair and skins are also made good use of.

There are only single humped dromedary camels in Pakistan. The riding camels are a product of specialised breeding and may be compared to thorough-bred horses. Donkeys are primarily kept

as beasts of burden or pack-animals. They are economical and easy to keep and have great resistance to disease. They are suitable for work both in the plains and low hills. On occasions, cultivators employ them as plough-animals also.

Strong, compact and extremely hardy mules are used in the hilly mountainous tracts of West Pakistan as pack-animals. Donkeys are located in the various veterinary hospitals in the northern zone of West Pakistan for mule production. Attempts are now being made to evolve a suitable mountain artillery mule.

During the Second Plan period a number of development measures were taken. They included setting up of a livestock improvement and dairy farm in the Eastern wing and of six new cattle farms in the West Pakistan, distribution of several hundred bulls, sheep and rams from government and leased farms, and maintenance of some on subsidy; import and distribution of some bulls and cows in Eastern wing from the Western wing; opening of several artificial insemination centres in both the provinces, and treatment of nearly 100,000 cows and bulls.

Meat

The people of Pakistan (being mostly Muslim) eat all kinds of meat barring pork. Some Hindus are vegetarian. The annual production of meat is about 773 million lbs, of which cattle make 61 per cent, buffaloes 14 per cent, goats 18 per cent, and sheep 7 per cent.

The estimated per capita consumption of meat in the country is 8 lbs per annum which is not sufficient for a balanced diet.

Wool

Total production of wool is about 36 million lbs, which is mainly carpet wool. Out of this quantity about 23 million lbs are exported annually, bringing foreign exchange worth Rs 65 million. The export of wool is subject to quality control and grading under the Agricultural Produce (Grading & Marking) Act, operated by the Department of Marketing Intelligence & Agricultural Statistics.

Animal Hair

About 8 million lbs of animal hair, mainly from goats, are produced. About 7½ million lbs, valued at Rs 15 million is exported. The quality of the export is also controlled under the above-mentioned Act.

Hides and Skins

The total production of hides is estimated at 6.9 million pieces and skins at 14.2 million pieces. These are mostly consumed by the local tanning industry and about Rs 30 million worth are exported. Quality control of hides and skins, as in the case of wool and hair, will be introduced shortly.

Dairy Farming

The output of dairy produce depends upon the number of breeding cows, buffaloes, goats and sheep and their average yield of milk. The average milk yield, both of buffaloes and cows, is very low as compar-

ed with other countries: 43 gallons per lactation in East Pakistan and 248 in West Pakistan. Some milk cows yielding more than 1,000 gallons in a lactation have also been reported,

The annual production of milk is 2,504 millon gallons: 44 per cent of it is cow milk 50 per cent buffalo milk and 6 per cent goat milk. Ghee (i.e. clarified butter) production is 250 million lbs. The annual cash value of dairy products is over 1,300 million rupees.

To overcome the increasing shortage of milk in urban areas schemes are in hand for converting milk into condensed or powdered form for supply in the deficit areas. A plant has recently been set up in Karachi for reconstituting milk from imported powdered milk and toning it with fresh milk. This milk is to be supplied to consumers after proper chilling and pasteurisation. A similar plant is to be set up in Lahore, and another milk supply scheme is to be started in Chittagong. In addition, private enterprise is being given facilities for setting up milk processing plants in big cities and towns.

Poultry

Until recently poultry production was not considered a profitable enterprise. The main limiting factors were low performance of birds, high cost of feed, high rate of mortality and lack of organised marketing. Only over the past three or four years has poultry production been started on commercial lines and the results have been very encouraging. Exotic breeds have been introduced both for eggs and meat; they have given very good results, producing as many as 230 eggs per annum and 3 lbs of live weight in 8-week span.

Recently the Agricultural Development Corporation has started work on a plan of starting poultry production on commercial lines at each of its cattle farms. There is a separate section for poultry. Fowls for eggs and meat are being bred separately and the products are to be supplied in quantity to the nearest urban centres. The poultry farms are being equipped with modern equipments.

Among the measures provided for by the Second Five-Year Plan was the improvement of the existing poultry farms and opening of new ones. For production of improved birds 300,000 quality birds and 1½ million improved eggs were distributed for state farms, and there was a large expansion of broiler production in the private sector. In the current Plan period six more farms are to be opened in the Eastern wing and two completed in the Western wing; 320 demonstration and extension units are to be set up at *thana* level in East Pakistan to popularise the use of improved birds and impart training to the villagers in poultry management. Management of existing farms is to be improved, and egg and birds of improved breed will be distributed among villagers at subsidised rates. To promote broiler production supply of good quality feed at reduced prices is being increased, price of chicks is being brought down through increased production and the export market is being explored.

FISHERIES

Pakistan has vast fish resources which have not yet been fully

exploited. Even as it is, the fishing industry occupies an important place in the country's economy. It is both an important source of food and of employment. According to the 1961 census about 558,000 wholetime workers are engaged in this industry, 88 per cent of them in East Pakistan and 12 per cent in West Pakistan. There are in addition 293,000 persons (248,000 in East Pakistan 45,000 in West Pakistan) who supplement their income from fishing. It is also an item of substantial export.

Pakistan has large resources of both marine and fresh water fish. Some 1,000 square miles of East Pakistan is covered by rivers, lakes, ponds and tanks; it has a coast line of 200 miles. West Pakistan has a coastline of 550 miles: it is also rich in inland fish resources. A lot of food is found for fish growth in the deltas of the Brahmaputra-Padma and on the coastline of Arabian Sea and in the Bay of Bengal. The present production of inland and marine fisheries approximate 379,000 metric tons. East Pakistan accounts for 83 per cent of fresh water fish and 17 per cent of marine fish. The main fish centres are Dacca, Chittagong, Goalundo, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Serajganj, and Sylhet in East Pakistan, and Karachi in West Pakistan.

There is a substantial quantity of oysters available well known for their size and taste. There is an Oyster Culture Park at Karachi where oysters from all parts are brought for culture.

Development In view of the potential importance of fisheries to the national economy the five-year plans have paid great attention to their development. During the Second Plan which ended in 1965, the following were some of the measures taken:

(*a*) In East Pakistan some 24,000 acres of derelict water areas have been taken up for reclamation. A number of water areas have been declared sanctuaries.

(*b*) In West Pakistan fisheries development has been taken up in Warsak Dam, Kalri Lake, Guddu and G.M. Barrage areas, Bund Khush Dil Khan, Spin Korez and Hannah Lake; trout culture is being carried on in Swat, Chitral, Gilgit and the Kurram Agency.

(*c*) Scores of fish-seed multiplication farms and nursery units were established in both the wings which now produce 28 million quality fry.

(*d*) About 250 demonstration units have been set up annually for demonstration of scientific methods of pisciculture.

(*e*) East Pakistan Fisheries Development Corporation was set up to assist in the development of fisheries in coastal water, estuaries and territorial waters of the Bay of Bengal. The Corporation has already implemented three schemes with success.

(*f*) The number of mechanised boats has now nearly reached 600 (170 in 1959). For quick transport of fish from the

catching to the consumer centres nearly 50 vessels were constructed.

(*g*) Eight fry vans were put into commission. Two fish carrier vessels were plying between Makran coast and Karachi. A landing jetty was constructed at Khulna Ghat.

(*h*) A wholesale fish market with cold storage and transport facilities was constructed at Chittagong. Others at Khulna, Rajshahi and Sylhet were under way. A cold storage and ice plant was installed at Pasni. Modernisation of the curing yards of Pasni and Gwadar were completed.

(*i*) A survey was carried out for the location of a fish harbour at Chittagong. Karachi's well-equipped fish harbour is near completion.

(*j*) A technological laboratory and a fresh water research station were established at Chandpur. The existing facilities at the laboratory at Chennawar were expanded. Construction of a marine biological laboratory at Karachi was under way. Another laboratory was established at Karachi fish harbour.

(*k*) A training institute was established at Chandpur for imparting training in fisheries development. Four vocational centres were set up at Chandpur, Barisal, Serajganj and Kuliarchar. A fisheries training centre and a vocational training institute were established at Lahore and Karachi respectively.

(*l*) Survey and exploration of in-shore waters continued. A vessel, *Jalwa*, has especially been constructed for this work in East Pakistan.

Measures on these lines are to be continued over the coming years. Several of the existing boats are to be mechanised and at least a thousand new launches and trawlers added to the existing fleet. One important aim concerns the disposal and management of the vast derelict areas after they are reclaimed. The practice so far has been to develop them over a period of three years after reclamation and then hand them over to the Revenue Department which leases them out to the highest bidders. The latter either sub-lease them or operate them themselves through hired fishermen. The natural tendency has been to prefer maximum immediate gains to optimum long-term exploitation. The result often is that the reclaimed and developed areas soon deteriorate again. This situation is to be corrected.

Some other details of the current programme are as follows:

(*a*) Additional fish seed farms are being started; establishment of fish sanctuaries is being expanded; and commercial exploitation of the Karnaphuli reservoir is being initiated.

(*b*) Fish cultivation in Kalri Lake and Warsak Dam areas is being intensified and extended to other lakes and dams.

(*c*) Utilisation of abandoned canals, reclamation of derelict

water areas, and development of village ponds for fish production are to be taken up.

(*d*) Development of trout fish is to be expanded.

(*e*) Survey is to be undertaken to explore the possibility of cultivation of other species.

(*f*) Facilities are to be provided for repairing both craft and fishing gear.

(*g*) For marketing facilities fish harbours will be constructed at Chittagong and on the Makran coast.

(*h*) Wholesale fish markets with cold storage ice plants are being set up at important centres, and existing facilities expanded. Transport, trade and curing requirements are also being met.

With these and other development measures a net increase of 35 per cent in fish supply is expected to be achieved during 1965-70.

FORESTRY

Forests play an important role in the economy of the country. They not only meet the requirements for firewood and scores of timber products but also provide an effective solution of the two-fold problem of soil and water conservation which is vital to the country's economy. They support and sustain such important industries as paper, newsprint, match, plywood, hardboard, pulp, rayon, sports goods and a host of cottage industries. Forests also induce better rainfall in arid regions.

There are under 10.3 per cent million acres of forest in Pakistan, which makes less than 4.44 per cent of the total land area of the country. Only half of this is capable of producing timber or firewood, while the rest consists of scrub forests, pastures or waste lands. Insufficiency and under exploitation necessitates import of foreign timber costing Rs 40 million annually. With increase in population, expansion in industries, and the colonisation of new areas, the demand is increasing. Because of shortage of firewood, cow-dung and other farm-yard manures are burnt by rural people, which cumulatively makes for a great loss to the productivity of the soil.

Kinds of Forests

The natural forests of Pakistan have been classified into the following groups.

Burman Forests

Burman forests are evergreen and semi-green deciduous forests lying on the eastern boundaries of East Pakistan. They derive their name from similarity with the types across the border in Burma. Gajran is the most typical species in the middle altitudes, while lower down a mass of vegetation (including bamboo) is to be found. Teak, not natural to the area, was planted here in the later half of the 18th century along the banks of the Karnaphuli river and is considered to be among the finest in the world.

Tidal Forests

Some of the low, flat alluvial land in East Pakistan is covered with mangrove forests and swamps, and intersected by saline water creeks and estuaries. There are also dense forests of sundri and its allied species.

Sal Forests

Sal forests are found in the low lying plains of Dacca and Mymensingh districts, covering an area of 260,000 acres.

North and North-West Mountain Forests

North and north-west mountain and sub-mountain forests extend over 350,000 acres in the northern-most parts of West Pakistan at altitudes of 3,000-13,000 feet. The trees are chiefly coniferous and include various types of *deodar*, spuree, fir and *chir*.

Sub-Mountain Siwalik Forests

Sub-Mountain Siwalik type forests occur lower down and extend over 50,000 acres. They are at altitudes of nearly 3,000 feet. The important trees are *phulai* and *keo*.

Baluchistan Forests

Baluchistan Hill type forests cover an area of about 50,000 acres in Baluchistan and are found at altitudes of 5,000-10,000 feet. Pine is the most important species in this region.

Riverine Forests

Riverine forests are the most common forests of the Indus Basin occurring along the rivers. They cover an area of about 900,000 acres and are the main source of firewood for West Pakistan. The main species of trees are *babul* and *shisham*.

Rakhs

Rakhs is the local name for the scrub jungles found in parts of the former provinces of Sind and Punjab.

Development

Steps were taken early to develop forestry properly and increase area. Under the Private Forests Act vast areas in private ownership were taken over by the Forest Department. Large areas were set aside for afforestation in developing regions. For instance, 150,000 acres each were marked out in the Thal area, and the lower and upper Sind Barrage areas. Existing forest reserves were organised in manageable units and regular planting and felling was being done for the purpose of sustained yield. Trees are regarded as perpetually renewable crops.

The Second Five-Year Plan laid emphasis on increased extraction of forest products in East Pakistan and afforestation in West Pakistan. Nearly 1½ million rupees were spent on this. Some of the work done during 1960-65 is summarised below:

(*a*) About 480,000 acres were afforested and 18,500 acres were regenerated. In addition, thousands of units of canal-side, road-side, and railroad-side forest were planted.

(*b*) Rubber plantation was raised to over 3,000 acres.

(*c*) 120 thousand tons of timber were extracted from the Chittagong Hill Tracts.

(*d*) To improve forest management and help adequate exploitation of forest resources—

(*i*) Nearly 600 miles of new forest roads and 900 new forest buildings were constructed.

(*ii*) 160 miles of old forest roads and 155 old buildings were repaired and improved.

(*iii*) Several bridges and culverts were built.

(*iv*) Wells were sunk.

(*v*) Launches, outboard engines, boats, jeeps and other vehicles were acquired.

(*e*) An aerial survey of 2,000 acres of forest (in Chittagong Hill Tracts) was completed.

(*f*) A new college for training of forest rangers was started in the Eastern Wing. Expansion of training and research facilities was undertaken.

Current development, as provided for in the Third Plan for the period 1965-70 includes the following measures:

(*a*) In the Eastern wing nearly 80,000 acres of wasteland are to be afforested, and over 40,000 acres of cut-over areas will be regenerated. Further, 13,000 acres will be afforested in the coastal-belt and offshore islands, and a further 37,000 acres will be protected. In the western wing also extensive planting is planned. Over 350,000 hilly, riverine and irrigated areas and a further 20,000 miles of canal, road and rail-side strips are to be planted.

(*b*) Rubber planting will be extended over 10,000 acres; *bidi* leaves will be planted over 5,000 acres; and such economic species as palm, cocoa, kapet, etc. will be planted over further areas.

(*c*) Extensive forest planting is planned.

(*d*) Several nursery centres are planned to provide seedlings for carrying out the afforestation programme.

(*e*) The rate of extraction in both the wings is being accelerated with due attention to regeneration of cut-over areas. Annual production from East Pakistan is expected to rise from 450,000 tons to 600,000 tons by 1970.

(*f*) The Chittagong Hill Tracts saw-mill at Kaptai is under completion, and it will convert 25,000 tons of logs annually.

(*g*) Extraction is being started in the unexploited forest areas in the Dir, Chitral and Swat.

(*h*) Extraction of minor forest products, namely, resin, *gugul*, *mazri*, and ephedra is being stepped up, and development of other medicinal plants encouraged.

In addition to these the programme includes improvements in forest and watershed management, in education and research, and in forestry in special areas.

DISEASE & PEST CONTROL

Plants

Great loss occurs annually to crops because of pests and diseases. The main pests are the bollworm and jassids of cotton, the stemborer of sugarcane, rice and maize, the swarming caterpiller of rice and the white and black fly of citrus. Both curative and preventive plant protection measures have to be adopted. The first often receive greater attention, and consist of ground and aerial spraying against the attack of pests; the latter mostly remain confined to the treatment of seeds against seed and soil-borne diseases, and preventive spraying of crops.

During 1964-65, curative measures covered an area of 6½ million acres, and preventive measures 3⅓ million acres. A great expansion programme is under way, and the respective targets for 1970 are 12 and 14 million acres.

There are thirteen plant quarantine station for checking and control of the entry of diseased plants and agricultural products into the country.

Except for a nominal charge realised from tea and sugarcane growers, plant protection services are supplied free of cost.

Pesticides have so far been distributed entirely by the Government, but there is now a recommendation that distribution be allowed through private enterprise. There is also a proposal to encourage farmers (through such measures as subsidising material and equipment and arranging education and demonstration campaigns) to undertake plant protection measures themselves.

Animals

Losses resulting from animal diseases are very high: those that survive disease and parasites suffer badly in their productivity. There are several hospitals, dispensaries, mobile units and outposts for the treatment of affected animals. During the current plan about 90 more hospitals and 183 dispensaries (the latter at the *thana* level in East Pakistan) are being set up. In addition, stock assistants are being appointed at village level to ensure continuous inoculation of animals against contagious, parasitic and other diseases. Annually some 5½ million animals are inoculated and 6 million are treated against various diseases. The country's manufacture of sera and vaccine has gone up from 30 to 40 million doses a year.

INCREASING PRODUCTIVITY

In spite of the fact that Pakistan has some of the best soils, generally favourable climatic conditions, and a most elaborate irrigation network the yield of crops per acre has been very low in comparison with the same crops grown elsewhere. Some of the reasons, typical of countries in this stage of development, are traditional methods of cultivation, deterioration of soil, use of poor seeds, and a feudal society. While the tenure system is already being changed by deliberate effort, large programmes have also been introduced in other fields. They include gradual mechanisation as means permit, education of farmers in better methods of production, supply of increasing quantities of good quality seeds, and of manures and fertilisers.

Good Seed

Good seed with high germination capacity can increase the yield by 5 to 50 per cent. It is, therefore, one of the most economical methods of increasing productivity. Efforts are made to produce and distribute such seed on a large scale. New seed multiplication farms are being set up in new irrigation projects and elsewhere. Special arrangements are made to ensure that the seed is available within easy reach of the farmers well ahead of sowing time. During 1964-65 alone over 40,000 tons of good seed were distributed.

It is planned that by 1970 from a minimum of 25 per cent, 70 per cent of the acreage under major crops will be sown with improved seeds in place of the existing seed.

In order to ensure that good quality of seed is produced and supplied, a system of seed testing and certification exists. Seventeen testing laboratories do this and more of them are being set up. The improved seed is treated with fungicide and pesticide, and before a new variety is brought on the approved list its performance is tested at the regional farms and in the cultivator's fields.

TABLE 11
AREA SOWN WITH TREATED SEED

Thousand acres

Year (July-June)	*East Pakistan*	*West Pakistan*	*Total*
1959-60	25	2,322	2,347
1960-61	71	2,573	2,644
1961-62	56	1,842	1,898
1962-63	48	1,875	1,923
1963-64	325	2,000	2,325
1964-65	332	2,100	2,432

Source : *Planning Commission*

Fertilisers

Deterioration of the soil due to constant use and lack of simultaneous replenishment of it to make up for organic deficits is one of the main reasons for low productivity per acre. One constant effort has, therefore, been to popularise the use of fertilisers, one of the quickest and cheapest means of increasing productivity. This has been done through increasing supply and then subsidising it so as to bring it within the reach of every cultivator.

Accordingly, fertiliser factories have been set up at Fenchuganj and Daudkhel which turn out 440,000 tons of fertilisers each year. The price is subsidised by the state from 40 to 50 per cent. As a result, during 1960 to 1965 the use of fertilisers by the farmers increased nearly five-fold from a base level of 32,000 tons.

The aim is to treble the present consumption by 1970. To do this the following steps are being ensured :

(*a*) intensive education campaign;
(*b*) subsidies;
(*c*) streamlining of distribution system;

(*d*) grant of credit facilities;

(*e*) ample supply through imports.

The distribution during 1966-67 in West Pakistan alone is to be of the order of one million tons, a greater part of which to be produced domestically.

There is also a programme for experimentation with gypsum as an amendment of alkaline soil. Manures, such as bone-meal, oil-cakes and compost are also being popularised.

Arrangements are in hand to expand fertiliser manufacturing capacity in the country from 440,000 tons to about 1,900,000 tons annually. An ammonia fertilisers plant is to be set up at Daudkhel.

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF FERTILISERS

Thousand tons

Year (July-June)	*East Pakistan*	*West Pakistan*	*Total*	*%increase over 1959-60*
1959-60	11.2	19.4	30.6	—
1960-61	22.5	31.5	54.0	76
1961-62	22.5	37.5	60.0	96
1962-63	27.0	40.2	67.2	120
1963-64	49.0	68.7	117.7	285
1964-65	45.0	87.2	132.2	332

Source : *Planning Commission*

Mechanisation

Increasing efforts are being made to modernise the methods of farming. The three development plans have laid special emphasis on this partial answer to the pressing demand for increased production. In the eastern part of the country it is possible to raise two and even three crops on the same land during one year period. In the western part also intensive agriculture requires quick ploughing. For developing new areas mechanised levelling and tillage are required. In view of this, the Agricultural Development Corporation is planning to launch an educational campaign to popularise the use of the best power tillers among the farmers. A plant is also to be set up soon for their assembly, and later on their manufacture. Two hundred Japanese tillers were recently imported to test which kind will be best suited.

There is a large expanding programme of distributing improved implements at subsidised prices. To ensure greater availability of tractors and implements an assembly plant has been set up. It is expected to supply 500 tractors in the first year, and 1,500 by the sixth.

There are seven agricultural workshops in West Pakistan for operation, maintenance and repair of machinery, training of mechanics

and operators, and for allied research. There are, in addition, several sub-shops. The working of these workshops has been considerably expanded and improved upon during the past years and now the repair facilities are to be extended to the district level.

Intensive research programmes at Dacca and Lyallpur workshops are continuing for evolving improved implements and machinery particularly suited to the needs of various areas. Experiments are carried on to gauge possibilities of introducing new work implements. Recently, for instance, a paddle thresher suited to local condition was developed at Lyallpur. It is now being manufactured on a large scale. Another possibility to be examined is the use of sprinkler irrigation.

Mechanised farming is also being encouraged through cooperative societies and several pilot projects set up for this purpose show very promising results. Mechanised cultivation on the cooperative system is of particular relevance to the Eastern Wing where there is a large number of small holdings which preclude large scale introduction of improved machinery on an individual basis.

TABLE 13

MECHANISATION BY PLAN PERIOD

Thousand acres

	1st Plan	*2nd Plan*	*3rd Plan*
Area ploughed (last year of Plan)	14	65	115
Area Developed (during the Plan)	237	345	1,000

Source : *Planning Commission*

Some of the achievements of the Second Plan in the sphere of mechanisation were:

(*a*) In the *Eastern wing* the number of tractors used for reclamation were almost doubled, and the area thus reclaimed increased from 7,000 acres in 1960 to 20,000 acres in 1965. In addition, over 4,500 new power pumps were purchased and the area irrigated by pumps increased from 47,000 to over 130,000 acres.

(*b*) In the *Western wing* the area developed for cultivation in 1965 was almost double that of the 1960 figure of 36,000 acres.

Agricultural Extension

Arrangements also exist for providing training and information to the farmers for better utilisation of their resources. The extension worker disseminates knowledge among the farmers about better use

of seeds, fertilisers, irrigation facilities, and better modes of cultivation. In the Eastern wing, field staff for extension work already exists at all administrative levels, and there is an emphasis now on improving and strengthening these facilities all over the country.

TABLE 14

FARM MECHANISATION PROGRAMME

Item	Unit	1959-60	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64	1964-65
East Pakistan							
Tractors used	Number	66	93	125	156	146	133
Pumps used	,,	1,150	1,367	1,555	2,024	2,477	2,238
Area reclaimed	Thousand acres	7	11	8	21	18	20
Area irrigated	,,	47	62	74	133	157	131
West Pakistan							
Tractors used	Number	143	133	140	137	108	114
Bulldozers used	,,	146	224	246	246	243	290
Area cultivated by tractor	Thousand acres	51	53	36	38	36	35
Area developed by bulldozers	,,	36	61	64	65	72	71

Source : *Planning Commission*

MARKETING

The marketing system in Pakistan, as in most other developing countries, is far from perfect, although it has improved much since independence. The main handicaps have been lack of adequate transport and communications from areas of production to the centres of trade, an excess of middle men between the grower and the consumer, on account mainly of the farmer's poverty, and the absence of main marketing centres at convenient distances. Among other factors have been the lack of ware-house facilities and absence of standard weights and measures particularly in East Pakistan. The grading system has also not yet covered all agricultural commodities.

Agricultural development of recent years has helped to improve the situation. The increased activity in building roads, especially under the Works Programme is already making transport of goods less difficult. The development in the rural credit system is alleviating the credit problems of the farmer and making him less dependent upon the money-lenders and the middle men; expansion of dual purpose cooperatives (providing marketing as well as credit facilities) promises to further ease matters.

The Department of Marketing Intelligence and Agricultural Statistics and the Central Statistical Office are issuing periodic

reports and publications for the benefit both of producer and consumers giving daily, weekly and monthly wholesale and retail prices of important agricultural commodities for different markets. Information is given relating to acreage, production prices and exports. In East Pakistan, the Directorate of Agriculture Marketing publishes a weekly price bulletin of agricultural and livestock commodities covering 59 markets. Daily price bulletins are issued to Radio Pakistan, Dacca, Rajshahi, Lahore, Hyderabad, Quetta and Karachi for broadcast.

Grading of commodities has also been started. During the Second Plan period, for instance, grade standards for oilcakes, potatoes, citrus fruits, hides and skins and eggs for export purposes, have been established. Grading work on a number of other commodities, like wool, animal hair, coriander seed, sann hemp is now in hand. Grading standards for a number of other commodities are being prepared.

In order to safeguard against trade malpractices, laws were passed in the early forties in the former Punjab and Frontier provinces to establish regulated markets. All market functionaries, such as weighmen, commission agents, and brokers, were to be licensed and their charges were fixed. At present, over 100 markets have been brought under the purview of this act, and the recommendation is to extend it over all areas of the Western wing. In the Eastern wing, the East Pakistan Agricultural Produce Markets Regulation Act was passed in 1964, and 14 markets have so far been brought under jurisdiction. One hundred more markets would be brought under its jurisdiction by the end of the Third Plan.

LAND REFORM

Two of the major causes hampering agricultural development were exploitation by landlords of the peasantry, and the defective land tenure system. The system of ownership and cultivation of land, coming down from historical times, had led to the emergence of certain distinct classes in the rural society, viz. (1) *jagirdars*; (2) peasant-proprietors, owning and cultivating small areas; (3) occupancy tenants, having some hereditary and transferable rights; (4) tenants or tenants-at-will, having no permanent interest in the land; and (5) casual agricultural labour. Absentee landlordism was the rule. The landlords' only interest was in the collection of their dues. The cultivator was not guaranteed the full fruits of his labour and he lived in uncertainty.

East Pakistan Reform

East Pakistan was considerably ahead of West Pakistan in the field of land reforms. Under the East Bengal State Acquisition and Tenancy Act, 1950, all rent-receiving interests between the cultivating tenants and the State were abolished and the emergence of rent-receiving interests in future were prevented. Legally the State had become the owner of the lands and the tenants were assured of full occupancy right with the rights of transfer to bonafide cultivators. Sub-letting was forbidden. This Act was further amended in 1961 to raise the retention

limit of self-cultivated lands. About 300,000 acres of self cultivated land was acquired by Government under this programme. Implementation of the programme envisaged in the 1950 Act is to be completed within the current Plan period.

West Pakistan Reform

In the western Province the Land Reforms Commission was appointed in December, 1958, by President Ayub. Later, on the recommendation of the Commission, the land reforms programme was implemented on the following broad lines.

Landlords holding land in excess of 500 acres of irrigated or 1,000 acres of unirrigated land declared their holdings which came to about 7¾ million acres. Of this nearly 2⅖ million acres were resumed. Of the resumed land 608,000 acres were under cultivating possession of tenants, 68,560 acres under self cultivating possession of owners, and 26,653 acres under forests. The Land Commission has already sold one third of the area resumed to the tenants on an easy instalment basis. To the landlord it gave compensation in the form of non-negotiable, heritable, interest bearing 25 year indemnity bonds.

As splintered holdings prove uneconomical, splintering has been forbidden and a consolidation programme is underway. So far some 7½ million acres have been covered by this programme. In addition, under a land utilisation scheme, some 300,000 additional acres have been brought under the plough.

Other important features of the reform are the abolition of *jagirdari* without compensation, guarantee of security of tenure to tenants, facilities for new tenants turned owners in the shape of ready credits, improved seeds, fertilisers and agricultural implements.

The entire land reforms programme in West Pakistan is self-financing.

Measures are now contemplated for the improvement and unification of legislation governing landlord-tenant relation, rationalisation of land revenue assessment rates, and recovery of betterment taxes from the owners of land for irrigation facilities provided. Efforts continue for developing the areas resumed from landlords but not yet distributed.

The decision of the government for the implementation of the land reforms is far-reaching in effect, and is expected to revolutionize the age-old agrarian system and in the long run help re-model the entire pattern of the socio-economic structure of the province. The vast disparities that existed earlier in the province are now reducing. Like the tenants, the landlords too, due to their restricted size of holding, are taking interest in their lands.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT

The need for credit among the farmers is very great, especially for development purposes. Due to small holdings and consequent low crop yields and low income there is very little saving among the majority of farmers in Pakistan for developing resources. There must, therefore, be outside agencies to help them in

undertaking improved farm practices. The introduction of improved practices necessitates increased capital in-puts by way of fertilisers, better farming tools, machinery and the like, and for these more capital must be made available to farmers. Further, they also need credit for marketing their agricultural products so that they do not fall into the hands of middlemen.

The village money-lender has been the traditional source of credit for farmers, providing them with loans at short notice, but the rate of such credit was exorbitant. Nevertheless, as the farmers could get the needed credit conveniently, the services of such money-lenders were useful. Following independence, most of those money-lenders, who were non-Muslims, migrated across the border. The vacuum has gradually filled up by institutional credit sources and by local people.

The development of institutional credit has received increased momentum during the last few years. As the commercial banking institutions do not generally come forward for investing in agriculture due to the risks involved, government has had to step in by organising institutional credit agencies. At present there are three such credit means or agencies, namely, direct government lendings called *taccavi*, the cooperatives and the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan.

Government Loan

Government is the oldest lending agency in the field of agriculture. At present government loans (*taccavi*) are granted under the Land Improvement Loans Act of 1883, and the Agriculturists' Loans Act of 1884. Under the Act of 1883, loans are granted for making land improvements, while under the 1884 Act loans are granted for rehabilitating farmers affected by natural calamaties or for any other purpose not specified in the Act of 1883, but connected with agricultural objects. In East Pakistan, loans are granted only under the 1884 Act. The government loans are operated and administered by the Revenue Department of the provincial governments.

In West Pakistan, loans granted under the 1883 Act hold the land to be improved as security, while loans under 1884 Act can be secured by any transferable interests in immovable property. Movable property is rarely accepted as security. Personal security is accepted provided the solvency of the borrower is assured.

In East Pakistan, government loans are issued to groups of co-villagers varying from 8 to 20 on a joint bond system according to which the borrowers are jointly and severally liable for repayment.

The Co-operatives

Primary credit societies were organised in the country under the Co-operative Societies Act in 1904. The Act was amended in 1912, as a result of which central societies came into existence. The structure of the cooperative system is made up of Provincial Cooperative Banks. Below them are the Primary Cooperative Credit Societies affiliated with the central banks. The main purpose of the primary

societies is to provide credit to their members and to encourage the habit of thrift. Their areas of operation are small villages. The central banks are confined to *talukas* or district towns, and their primary function is to meet credit needs of societies, but generally they also perform ordinary banking business, accept deposits from the public on current and fixed accounts, collect bills and cheques, issue drafts and make advances to individual members against movable securities. Loans are given commonly on the security of two-members.

Under the programme for the reorganisation of agricultural credit and marketing in East Pakistan about 500 union (primary level) multi-purpose co-operative societies and 30 central (secondary level) multi-purpose societies were developed or reorganised during 1960-65. In addition, 54 central banks and seven land mortgage banks were reorganised and 9 district land mortgage banks were established. In West Pakistan also 500 large-size co-operative societies at primary level were revived. In addition, only 65 marketing societies at secondary level and 3,000 service societies were also organised during these five years.

Agricultural Development Bank

Realizing that the credit needs of the agriculturists, especially for improvement and investment purposes were not adequately met by the existing credit institutions, government established in 1952 the Agricultural Development Finance Corporation with Head Office at Karachi and three Regional Offices at Dacca, Lahore and Sukkur. Later, in 1955, the Corporation opened additional regional offices under the direction of the Central Government. In 1957, another bank, called the Agricultural Bank of Pakistan was opened. Its purpose was mainly to help small cultivators. In 1961, following the recommendations of the Credit Inquiry Committee the two banks were merged together. The present Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan is the result of the merger of these two organisations in February, 1961.

The Agricultural Development Bank with its 110 offices has now become the main institutional agency for supplying credit to the farmers. It has an authorised capital of Rs 200 million of which Rs 100 million has been issued and paid up.

The Agricultural Development Bank advances short-term, medium-term and long-term loans for raising crops, marketing of crops, purchase of agricultural implements and machinery and for bringing out various other developments in agriculture. Since its inception upto 31st March 1965, it had disbursed a total sum of Rs 452.7 million as loans in both the wings of the country.

The loan operation of the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan (ADBP) during the Second Five Year Plan (1960-65) has resulted in a total estimated benefit of over Rs 170 million in the shape of increased agricultural production in the country. Major position of such benefits, which have been estimated in terms of money, are of recurring nature. The loans given by the Bank for labour charges,

marketing of crops, hires of bullocks and carts far exceed their importance in terms of money.

Of the total, over Rs 20 million were advanced for purchase of seeds and the crops grown by them have been benefited to the extent of an increase of about Rs 28 million in their value.

Nearly Rs 10 million were advanced for purchase of fertilisers. This has effected an increase of over Rs 41.28 million in the value of produce, grown on that area.

The loans disbursed for clearance of jungle and levelling of land amounted nearly to Rs 13.75 million, adding produce worth Rs 24 million. The tractors and the auxiliary implements purchased out of the Bank's loans enabled improved cultivation on an area of over 24 million acres. The tubewells and other wells which were installed through the Bank's loans, brought about an estimated addition of over Rs 66 million in the value of produce.

The Third Five Year Plan provides expansion in the operations of the Agricultural Development Bank in which government proposes to increase its share from Rs 100 million to Rs 175 million. On the other hand, government intends to discourage the direct loans, i.e. *taccavi* loans, except for relief and rehabilitations purposes.

EDUCATION AND RESEARCH

Facilities for agricultural training and research are being rapidly expanded to meet the increasing demands of agricultural scientists, engineers, technicians, skilled workmen and trained farmers, and to find out new methods of controlling plant and animal diseases, increasing productivity, developing new and improved varieties of commodities, and finding better agronomic practices in general.

There are now two full-fledged agricultural universities, one in each Wing, producing about 300 graduates annually, whose number is to be increased during the current Plan period to 750. There are agricultural colleges at Tando Jam, Peshawar and Tejgaon. In addition, there are five training centres in the Western Wing and six agricultural schools and training institutes in the Eastern Wing for providing pre-service and in-service training to the staff of agricultural departments.

Three agricultural research stations at Tarnab, Tando Jam and Tejgaon have now been made full-fledged agricultural research institutes. The Ayub Agricultural Research Institute has been established at Lyallpur, and an Atomic Energy Research Station for agricultural research was started at Tando Jam. There are also several sub-stations of these research institutes in several ecological zones. In addition, there are separate institutes for jute and cotton research.

To organise, co-ordinate and promote scientific research, an Agricultural Research Council has been set up.

There are plans of expanding and improving upon all existing facilities. Particular importance is given to improvement in the quality and standard of agricultural education and training. The outturn of trained graduates and post-graduates is to be increased. A new agricultural college is to be shortly set up. At the intermediate level,

improvements are being made in the training courses of field assistants, and programmes of farmers' training are being expanded.

Recent Researches

Researches are carried out as a continuing process in all the agricultural institutions. As a result, several new varieties of crops have been evolved, and several new methods of plant and animal protection discovered.

Rice

The total production of rice in Pakistan is about 12 million tons, with a per acre yield of 11.8 maunds. With a view to increasing the production, an early maturing variety of transplanted *aman* rice has been developed which gives substantially better performance than existing ones. Another *aman* variety was evolved, suitable for medium-type saline soils. Some better type coarse varieties have also been evolved. A new variety of *basmati* having a very fine long grain has also shown great promise and is expected to increase the production of *basmati* rice in West Pakistan from where it is exported in substantial quantities.

Wheat

The average annual production of wheat is 4½ million tons, and the yield per acre is estimated at 9 maunds. Efforts are being made to improve the yield by introducing better varieties and by improving the fertility of the soil. Research work to evolve better varieties has been done on the same lines as in Mexico under the experts provided by Rockefeller Foundation. Ten thousand tons of seed were imported from Mexico. This seed comprised the well-known varieties: Payamo-62, Larmorojo and Pitic. Payamo-62 is reported to have yielded 40 to 45 maunds per acre over an area of 10,000 acres. Its further multiplication is in progress. Another new variety, Mexi-Pak-65, has yielded 71 maunds per acre. This variety has little tendency towards lodging. It is expected that about 50,000 acres will be sown under this variety. Another new improved variety suited to the sub-mountain regions which yields 250 to 300 lbs more per acre has also been evolved and is soon to be released for general cultivation. The Australian variety called *dirk* has proved suitable for the Peshawar region but it seems to lack high resistance to rust and smut. Further work to improve it is in progress.

Jute

The average annual production of jute is 5.8 million bales. Efforts are being directed to improve the per acre yield and also the quality so as to meet the international demand more competitively.

Two new varieties of jute have been found to be superior in yield and performance to the present ones and were placed on the approved list. They are now being multiplied for distribution. Results of experiments on cultural practices showed that 10 to 12 per cent higher yields could be obtained by line sowing; a new seed multiplication technique in which the tops of plants are planted was also developed. Further work on early maturing, and flood and

drought resistant varieties are now being emphasized. Aspects of mixed and alternate cropping are being investigated. In all, seven new jute varieties have been evolved since independence, and a number of jute plant diseases have been identified and their remedies developed.

Cotton

The average annual production of cotton in Pakistan is 2.3 million bales. The per acre yield amounts to 2.8 maunds, which is very low and efforts are being directed towards it. Further, Pakistan requires long staple fine varieties of cotton to meet the requirements of the textile industry. Therefore, another purpose of current research is to evolve the varieties which can adequately meet this requirement. Already varieties of cotton with desirable characteristics have been developed. Most prominent among them is AC-307 which has been found to be an extremely early maturing variety and its yield is 3 to 4 maunds more per acre as compared with the existing varieties. In this respect it outyields all commercial varieties, such as AC-137, LSS and even AC-134. Its ginning out turn is 34-35 per cent and staple length 29 mm and it is shortly being released for general cultivation. Another extra long staple variety (SS) with over 1¼ inch staple length and with other desirable characteristics has been developed. Its commercial cultivation in the near future will make Pakistan self-sufficient in her requirements of extra fine and long staple cotton for the textile industry of the country. Research work undertaken in East Pakistan to evolve medium-staple cotton done to suitable for growth there is continuing. Further, work is being done to develop techniques of controlling root rot, boll rot and boll worms and for determining best types of fertiliser for growing cotton.

Sugarcane

The average annual production of sugarcane in Pakistan is about 30 million tons: East Pakistan 14.9 and West Pakistan 15.6. The consumption of sugar in Pakistan is progressively increasing. In order to make sugarcane production more economical for growers and also to make sugar prices competitive, it is necessary that the yield per acre should be increased and the quality of sugarcane grown be improved to achieve the objective. Already the new improved varieties evolved, such as CO-547, BL-19, B-14 and COL-72 have given better performance. Among them BL-19 has been found to be leading by about 200 maunds per acre in yield. However, the most outstanding feature has been the introduction of sugar-beet. About 800 maunds of beet root per acre has been obtained which is equivalent to about 100 maunds of sugar per acre. Variety Triplex has given better results.

Soyabean

Soyabean is highly rich in oil and, therefore, can be used both for oil extraction and green manuring. This crop is not at present grown in Pakistan but due to the large import of soyabean oil from the U.S.A.

under PL-480 programme, it has been found that it constitutes a suitable basefor the manufacture of vanaspati ghee in the country. Therefore, the growing of this crop has attracted the attention of research workers here. They think that its cultivation in the country has fairly good prospects and it has a great potential of expansion as a farmer's crop. The cultivation of soyabean will supplement the oilseed supply in the country and thereby, increase edible oil production.

The research project of the Agricultural Research Council on soyabean, operating at Mansehra, Tando-Jam andLyallpur since 1960, has given very encouraging results. About 150 strains have been studied and several promising selections made. Some of these are reported to have yielded 1,600 lbs per acre with an oil content of 19-20 per cent.

Fruits and Vegetables

A number of new varieties of fruits and vegetables has been brought on the approval list. Among the vegetables, improved varieties of potatoes, tomatoes, peas and lady's fingers deserve special mention. New improved varieties of fruits have been developed in mango, peach, water-melon, musk-melon, etc. Experiments with banana production have been so successful that the output has risen from 26,000 maunds in 1958 to 3.8 million maunds in 1965. West Pakistan now even has a surplus left for export. With a view to utilising fruits and vegetables more economically, preservation factories have been established in the country and efforts are being made to establish more such factories, particularly from the export point of view.

Introduction of New Crops

Introduction of new crops of commercial importance is encouraged because it helps to diversify production. On the basis of experimental results, there appears to be good promise for cashewnut cultivation in both provinces; mecadmia-nut and coffee plants are giving encouraging results in East Pakistan and several species of grasses and forage crops have been successfully introduced in the arid area of Quetta.

Arid Zone Research

Agronomical research under *barani* conditions has been going on in West Pakistan, near Rawalpindi. In order to cover all the important aspects of arid zone research, a full-fledged research station will soon be established with a comprehensive research programme covering all inter-related fields.

Fisheries

Exploratory surveys are being made of inshore and offshore waters to provide information on the location of fishing grounds, the movement of fish and the prediction of fishing seasons.

The station and laboratories at Chandpur, Chennawar and Karachi have been doing extensive research work on fresh water and marine fish. The work includes the culture of sea fish of inland saline waters, cultivation of prawns, and the analysis of seasonal variation in demersal and phelagic stocks. These research centres are being further expanded for better execution of their work.

A pre-investment study for the development of fisheries in the eastern Wing has been in progress and is due to be completed soon.

The training institute at Chandpur imparts training in fisheries development. Besides there are now four vocational centres at Chandpur, Barisal, Serajganj, Kuliarchar and Karachi. There is a fisheries training centre at Lahore.

Two more institutes are planned to be set up shortly for training master fishermen and marine engineers. To intensify the work of demonstrating improved methods of fish cultivation, new extension staff is being appointed at *thana* level.

Forestry

Two premier education and research organisations are Forest Research Laboratory at Chittagong and the Forest Institute at Peshawar.

At the laboratory, research work had been undertaken on the utilisation of various timber species. Studies are proceeding on the seasoning and strength properties of various species, on the suitability of indigenous species for veneering, tea chests, matches, plug, pencils, furniture and other uses. Silvicultural and wood utilisation research is being intensified in both the wings. Special emphasis is being laid on the work of adoption and acclimatisation of foreign species, especially those which may be grown in water-logged alkaline and dry areas. Work is in progress on the irrigation water requirement of forest crops and on the classification of the forest areas as to their economic possibilities. The Forest Institute at Peshawar, in addition to carrying out research, trains rangers and administrative personnel. The Forest Ranger College at Chittagong and the Forest School at Sylhet produce rangers and foresters respectively.

These facilities for research and training are to be greatly expanded during the current Plan period.

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8. INDUSTRY

Introductory.

State Policy. Principles.

Measures for Promotion of Industries. Emphasis in the Five-Year Plans; Bias in Commercial Policy; Concession to Private Enterprise; Protection; Price Stabilisation; Trading Estates; Other Assistance Measures.

Industrial Institutions. Pakistan Industrial Development Corporations (PIDCs); Industrial Development Bank (IDBP); Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC); Investment Promotion Bureau; Central Testing Laboratories; Standards Institute; Patent Office.

Training and Research. Training Institutions; Council of Scientific and Industrial Research.

Industrial Production. General Development; Cotton Textiles; Jute Goods; Forest Industries (timber, paper); Cement; Leather and Leather Products; Chemicals and Pharmaceuticals; Fertilisers; Sugar; Fruit and Vegetable Preservation; Fish Canning; Tobacco; Vegetable Oils; Surgical and Other Instruments; Sports Goods; Ship Building and Engineering Works; Heavy Industry (Steel Mills, Machine Tool Factory, Heavy Machine Complex, Heavy Electrical Complex, Others); Small and Cottage Industries.

Pakistan, more than most other developing countries, started with almost a clean slate in the matter of industries. What was achieved by way of industrialisation in the pre-independence Indo-Pakistan subcontinent was concentrated in a few convenient areas like Calcutta, Bombay and Madras which, after partition, went to the share of India.

The major industries of the subcontinent at the time of independence were cotton textiles, jute, sugar, iron and steel, cement, paper and glass. The total number of factories counted at the time were 921, employing 1,137,150 persons daily. Out of these only 34 (that is less than 4 per cent), with a total daily employment of 26,400 persons, came to Pakistan. Considering that 20 per cent of the total population of the sub-continent (according to the 1941 census) lived in Pakistan areas, this was a meagre share. Moreover, the industries in Pakistan were of a comparatively small size and met very simple needs: small sugar mills, a fruit squash and canning factory, a few rice and flour mills, a couple of biscuit factories, a brewery, a distillery, a hydrogenated oil mill, the salt mines at Khewra, a tea industry in

Sylhet, a small oil field and refinery at Attock, five cement works, half a dozen engineering shops, a few steel re-rolling mills, a match factory, some small glass works, and a negligible capacity for manufacturing tools—these made up the total inventory more or less.

STATE POLICY

Soon after independence, an industrial conference was convened to lay down the fundamentals of industrial policy. The following directions emerged:

- First emphasis on industries based on indigenous raw material, namely jute, cotton, hides and skins.
- Development of consumer goods industries to meet needs and avoid imports; and also, where possible, of heavy industries, to prepare the ground for long-term industrialisation.
- Free play to private enterprise and individual initiative, subject to certain conditions.
- Nationalisation in the case of public utilities. (Communication and transport services, like railways, were already managed by the State, road transport was being nationalised; arms and ammunition of war, generation of hydel power, atomic energy, and manufacturing of railway wagons, telephones, telegraphs and wireless were to be owned and operated by the State).
- Demarcation of responsibilities between the central and provincial governments: centre to own and operate important industries, the remaining, including the planning of their development and implementation of the plans, assigned to the provinces.
- Financial assistance, protective tariffs, tax incentives and education, training and research facilities to speed growth of industries.

These principles were pursued in the succeeding years with varying degrees of success. Highlights of the period were setting up of a Development Board (1948), an Industrial Finance Corporation, an Industrial Investment and Credit Corporation (1949) and a Tariff Commission (1950); the drawing up of a Six-Year Plan (1951); establishment of the Industrial Development Corporation, a Directorate of Cottage and Small Industries, and a Refugee Rehabilitation Finance Corporation (all 1952); and creation of several training facilities. In 1956 the Constitution then promulgated placed several important industries on the federal list, and the government reaffirmed the original directives of industrial policy.

It was, however, from 1959 onwards that conscious and consistent efforts were made to implement these principles in full. Benefit was taken of the institutions already created for this purpose and several new ones were set up where needed. A determined drive was made for promotion of industries and boosting up of production. This brought rewards in an extraordinary performance during Five-Year Plan (1960-65), and the launching of an ambitious Third

Plan.

Since then new emphasis has been placed on the utilisation of domestic raw materials, encouragement of medium and small industries to create increasing employment opportunities, on dispersal of industries and greater development of less developed regions. The government offers all encouragement to private enterprise, limiting its own role to ensuring favourable conditions for its operation and stepping in only where private enterprise for some reason is still hesitant. Foreign capital and enterprise are treated even more hospitably than before. The pace and manner of industrial development take full account of the existing requirements and limitations: for instance, the agricultural sector is not allowed to suffer, as happened in the earlier years, because of the need for rapid industrialisation.

Measures for Promotion of Industries

The measures taken in pursuance of these policies include:

(*a*) importance to industries in all national development plans;
(*b*) increasing industrial bias in commercial policy;
(*c*) concessions to private enterprise, such as concession in taxes, protection for selected industries, relaxation of controls;
(*d*) promotion of financial and development institutions;
(*e*) arrangement of foreign aid and loans;
(*f*) establishment of trading estates;
(*g*) expansion of facilities in research, training and related matters;
(*h*) expansion of export potential of manufactured goods and achieving import substitution;
(*i*) promotion of productivity within industries;

Some of these are briefly described in the following paragraphs.

Industries in Development Plans

The Second Five-Year Plan which ended in 1965 devoted its largest expenditure (of Rs 5,120 million: 23½ per cent of the total) to the industrial sector. Together with the expenditure on fuel and power development, this was a 50 per cent increase on the allocation of the First Plan. As a result of measures taken by government for industrial development the manufacturing sector attained a remarkably rapid growth and diversification. The industrial capacity expanded substantially and the increase in industrial production, of 60 per cent, exceeded the Plan target; self-sufficiency was achieved in a large number of consumer goods.

The Third Plan continues the Second in strategy and policy, and is in line with the targets set for the next twenty years in the Perspective Plan. The allocation to the industrial sector is more than double that of the Second. There is a shift in emphasis from consumer goods to capital goods industries and industries are being set up primarily for exports. As in the Second Plan, major reliance continues to be placed on private investment for the bulk of industrial investment, with the role of the State confined to providing the

climate and the infra-structure required for industrial development and to resolving such conflicts as may arise in between economic efficiency, individual interests and national priorities. In absolute terms the contribution of industries to the gross national product has almost trebled in fifteen years, and is expected to enlarge by that proportion again in the next twenty.

Commercial Policy

There is a distinct industrial bias in government's commercial policy, especially in respect of imports. Increasing amounts of foreign exchange are earmarked for the import of industrial raw material. The import policy for 1966-67 was further liberalised and the free list was enlarged, consisting now of 65 items against 31 of the previous year. The pattern of industrial licensing has been considerably changed to conform to the liberal bias of the policy. The number of industries to get normal licences has been increased. The export bonus scheme, under which bonus of foreign exchange is given on certain kinds of exports, and the linking of import licensing with export performance in certain fields give industrialists fuller scope for meeting their requirements. The Export Promotion Bureau helps the producers in expanding their business.

Concessions

Various concessions are given to industrialists. These include iberal depreciation allowances on plant, machinery and buildings; exemption from income tax and super tax of substantial portion of profits of approved industrial undertakings in the first year of their operation; exemption from tax on new investment made in certain industries; rebate on undistributed profits on public limited companies engaged in approved industries; exemption of expenditure of a capital nature on scientific research and so on. Industrial undertakings established at any time between April 1959 to June 1970 have been granted a tax holiday for two, four or six years, depending upon the areas in which they are located. After the expiry of the holiday period, a depreciation allowance is allowed on the written down value of the capital assets, *i.e.* the original cost minus the normal depreciation allowance. Eligible industries, if they are not based on indigenous raw material, have to be among those specified by the government as being of special importance.

Protection

A Tariff Commission considers and recommends protective tariffs or other forms of assistance necessary for protection of industries, and reports on the progress made by industries in the implementation of approved recommendations. Great care is taken in granting such protection. The understanding is that the industry so protected will be able to dispense with the necessity within a reasonable period and, during the period of assistance, the cost to the consumer (which may include other industries) or to the State will not be excessive. In addition, the Tariff Commission is required also to determine what should be required of that industry to secure production at the most

economical cost.

Price Stabilisation

In 1958 there were eighty-eight articles under price control. Now there are almost no such controls. However, methods are adopted to ensure reasonable stability in prices.

Price behaviour hinges on varied and complex factors. It was found necessary to set up a central body which would, in co-operation with other governmental agencies, initiate a well co-ordinated and determined programme of price stabilisation. The Price Stabilisation Board, with the Secretariat in the Price Stabilisation Wing, was constituted to co-ordinate, direct and control steps taken in the agricultural, industrial, commercial and financial fields to secure and maintain stability in prices.

The Wing, among other things, surveys the distributive channels of industries and makes sector-wise examination of the impacts of various taxes on prices of essential commodities.

Trading Estates

Industrial trading estates have been established at various places to offer initial facilities for setting up industrial units. Facilities in the form of roads, railway connexions, post and telegraph offices, water and power are provided. Proximity of agricultural raw material useful for industrial production is also a factor in selecting site for the estates. There are two large estates in Karachi and thirteen small ones in the Eastern wing. Twenty others are being set up at various places in both wings, and more are to follow.

Other Assistance

Financial institutions, research and training facilities provided are described in the following paragraphs. Among other measures of State assistance are reduction of obstacles to new investment through the industrial investment schedule, industrial legislation, and simplification of controls on the import of machinery and raw materials.

INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTIONS

Among major steps taken fully or partially on behalf of the State to encourage industrialisation is the setting up of several development, financial and promotional institutions. Such institutions in the country include the Industrial Development Corporations (one in each wing), the Industrial Finance Corporation (now replaced by the Industrial Development Bank), the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation and the Investment Promotion Bureau.

Industrial Development Corporations (PIDCs)

The East Pakistan and West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporations were, until their provincialisation in 1962, one central organisation, called the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation. The PIDC was established with the object of promoting industrial enterprises which private industrialists were either unable or unwilling to undertake. With this in view fifteen industries were named in the schedule of the PIDC Act of 1950. The Corporation was meant to

supplement, and not to replace, private enterprise: its emphasis was not on ownership, but promotion.

Accordingly the PIDC, and later the E & WPIDC's, have concentrated on promoting industries which

— require heavy initial capital investment;
— take a long period to set up;
— involve complicated processes requiring high skill or experience;
— rectify concentration of other industries;
— ensure better balance in development.

The Corporation begins by carrying out a preliminary survey for which a revolving credit is available. Efforts are made to associate private capital from the beginning, failing which the project is pressed on nevertheless. After it is completed, efforts are reviewed to attract private capital or sell it out. If again there is no success it is converted into a joint stock company and its shares placed on the market with the Corporation acting as managing agents.

The PIDC was set up as an autonomous organisation with an authorised capital of Rs 10 million, only half of which was issued and fully subscribed by the government. All the finances for projects undertaken come from annual budgetary grants formerly of the central, and now of the provincial government; from such private capital as the Corporation is able to attract; from foreign aids and loans; and from working capital obtained from private banks on normal commercial terms.

Upto June 1962 the PIDC had undertaken the establishment of 55 projects, some by itself, and others in partnership. These included:

12 jute mills,	4 chemical plant,
4 paper board and newsprint mills,	1 penicillin factory,
3 ship-building & repairing yards,	1 dye stuff plant,
2 cement factories,	3 woollen mills,
3 fertilizer factories,	2 cotton textile mills,

and gas transmission pipe lines from Sui to Karachi and Multan, gas distribution companies and coal-mines development projects.

With respect to 37 of these, public limited companies had been floated. Several projects had been disposed of.

The production value and foreign exchange earnings of the PIDC projects have been showing notable growth.

With provincialisation the east wing Corporation had 59 projects in hand. Twenty-two of these were completed by the end of the Second Plan period and 95 per cent of the sanctioned outlay of the Second Plan (about Rs 640 million) had been utilised by the Corporation. By 1967 all that remains will be completed. The investment

programme for 1965-66 alone was Rs 323½ million, showing the rising development activity in that wing.

The west wing Corporation completed ten projects after July 1962. Together with its inherited projects, the total number of WPIDC projects now is 46. There are 30 others in the small industries sector. Projects in hand number 65, one-third relating to large industry.

Industrial Development Bank (IDBP), Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation (PICIC)

Two major financing institutions are the Industrial Development Bank and the Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation. The current pace of industrial development in the country is owing in part to their contribution. Some of the industries helped by them in the past are metal and electrical industries, engineering, cement, chemicals and pharmaceuticals, food products and food processing, sugar and its by-products.

Investment Promotion Bureau

The Investment Promotion Bureau was established in 1959 for promoting domestic and foreign investment in industry to meet the planned targets for private sector. The function of the Bureau is to speed up through official channels applications for establishment of new industrial concerns, to offer advice and guidance to investors, and to help foreign and home investors obtain import licences, building materials, land, power, water, railway siding, technical know-how, raw material, and other materials for which approval of central or provincial governments is required. Offices have been set up in both the wings and also in London to help foreign investors on the spot.

Central Testing Laboratories

Set up in 1951, the Central Testing Laboratories at Karachi, Lahore, and Dacca have made their contribution in the development of industries and in the promotion of trade. They are concerned with the scientific assessment of industrial raw materials, finished products and exportable commodities, and provide scientific guidance to government purchases and inspection departments, indigenous industries and commercial enterprises. They are equipped with modern apparatus and are staffed with scientists who have had specialised advanced training. The laboratories have several sections: one recently added on the recommendation of the Tariff Commission is for testing power transmission pulleys manufactured in the country.

Pakistan Standard Institute

Pakistan Standard Institute is engaged in the promotion of trade, commerce and industries on scientific lines. The institute aims at popularising voluntary adoption of standards. Its branch office in Dacca was recently engaged in preparing the draft standard specifications on items like jute, tea, coirs, ply-wood, tea-chest and other items peculiar to East Pakistan. For selected exportable goods PSI is also responsible now, under the Certification Marks Ordinance for enforcing compulsory standardisation to ensure that only quality goods are exported. It also serves as a catering house of information

on standardisation. It is establishing a standards museum for the display of standard products.

The Patent Office

The Patent Office grants patents for new invention in various fields of engineering, technology and science and registers new industrial designs. During 1964-65, 1,250 patent applications and 317 design applications were received; 887 patents for new invention were granted, while 254 new designs were registered. Upto February 1965, 5,998 patented inventions and 1,986 registered designs were enforced in Pakistan.

TRAINING & RESEARCH

Training

Various institutional arrangements have been made for training personnel both in management and skills. The number of polytechnics is being increased, and courses in business administration are being introduced in the universities. The main objectives of these expanding facilities are—

- To promote productivity consciousness;
- To make technical advice available to industries;
- To disseminate modern know-how and improved technique among industrial personnel;
- To train industrial personnel to upgrade their skills and knowledge;
- To design and manufacture precision tools, dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures, gauges, machine components; develop such products and machines which would assist industries in increasing their productivity; promote utilisation of indigenous raw material; and increase the scope of indigenous manufacture.

Some of the important institutions and activities in this line are described below.

Industrial Technical Assistance Centre (PITAC)

Pakistan Industrial Technical Assistance Centre (PITAC), set up in 1957, has been very active. With workshops fully equipped for the requirements of several trades, it handles production orders from industries, which comprise designing and manufacture of precision production dies, moulds, jigs, fixtures, gauges, patterns and castings, manufacture of intricate machinery, heat treatment, precision grinding of components and parts, special type of electric-plating, metallizing, *etc*. It gives advisory service to industrial units, and conducts education programmes (through seminars, *etc*.) on such aspects as productivity, management development, quality control and so on.

Swedish-Pakistani Institute of Technology (SPIT)

Swedish-Pakistani Institute of Technology (SPIT), set up with Sweden's collaboration in 1955, aims at assisting the development of small scale industries through training of foremen, supervisors, instructors and entrepreneurs. It provides training within the industries in electrical and mechanical skill, in wood working, welding and ready-to-wear garment-making. The number of trainees has been rising steadily reaching in 1966-67 a figure of 350. It has provision for a small production unit attached to the regular training programme

in different fields so as to provide technicians with actual situations they may have to face later on.

Technical Institute, Kaptai

A similar technical institute at Kaptai (Chittagong Hill Tracts) was set up in 1962. Its courses include electrical work, metal work, wood work and motor-maintenance know-how. The Institute has by now four batches of students with a total number of 140.

Technical Institute, Gujrat

Another Institute has been established in the industrial area of West Pakistan at Gujrat on the lines of SPIT, Landhi and Kaptai. The technologies taught in this Institute are entirely electro-mechanical: with separate electrical, mechanical (industrial and instrumental), welding, automobile, and foundry divisions. The Institute started with one technology in October, 1965: four more were added in September, 1966. There are now 90 students on the roll.

Institute of Personnel Training

The Institute of Personnel Training attached to the Industrial Development Corporation runs a training-within-industry programme. With the help of a staff of experts, the Institute concerns itself with improving management skill for supervision from charge-hand level to junior managers.

Departments of Industrial Planning

Recently, on the recommendation of the Second Plan, departments of industrial planning and development were set up by central and provincial governments within their industries organisations in their secretariats. These departments conduct surveys, provide technical advisory services for the establishment of new plants or improvement of operation of existing plants and advise government in selecting firms and individuals for specific industrial projects.

Training Courses

In 1955 a number of training courses with special reference to textiles were conducted at various industrial centres by an ILO mission. The results then were so encouraging that in one weaving shed the output went up by 40 per cent in a few months. The government has since been sponsoring such other programmes.

Colombo Plan Bureau of Technical Co-operation

The Colombo Plan Bureau of Technical Co-operation has also been of great assistance in expanding facilities in the line. In addition, full benefit is drawn from equipment and personnel supplied and training facilities offered by co-operating countries under this or other international programmes offered by UN agencies.

Third Plan Programmes

In the current Plan, projects for heavy industries include training programmes for key personnel. Technical education and institutions are being improved and expanded and industry is being given increased facilities for training its personnel abroad.

Research

Research into new products, improved qualities of products, and new methods of production is, like training, a continuous and expanding activity. There are institutions that carry on research either as their main or subsidiary activity.

The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (PCSIR)

The more important of these is the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research. Set up in 1953, it has since developed a number of new processes for the optimum utilisation of indigenous resources. Some of these, like the production of water proofing material from jute, water proofing additive from cement, light weight concrete, vitamin A concentrate from shark liver, dry distemper, printing ink, insulation board from bagasse, chip board from wood waste, and synthetic marble, are already in commercial use. With its laboratories at Karachi, Dacca, Rajshahi, Lahore and Peshawar, comprising 21 separate divisions, the Council is further expanding its activities. It is now taking up research on fuels, mineral processes, building materials, food technology, leather, and several others.

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION

The growth of industry in Pakistan has been remarkably rapid. Starting virtually at the base, the contribution of the sector to the gross national product rose to 6.9 in two years, and to 11.5 in another fifteen years. The progress has been especially notable since 1959: there has been over 60 per cent increase in industrial production, and self-sufficiency has been achieved in a large number of consumer and capital goods. With the base at 100 in 1959-60, the index of industrial production rose to 161.4 in 1964-65. In 1965-66, in spite of a series of mishaps, including a war emergency which led to rise in defence expenditure, fall in investment activity, *etc.*, the uncertainty created about foreign assistance, and unfavourable weather conditions affecting agricultural produce—despite these factors the gross national product rose by 4.8 per cent over the previous year. This was mainly due to stable industrial growth.

Not only has there been rapid growth in industry but, especially lately, great diversification also. The country started with a few small industries (which contributed about 80 per cent of the total contribution of this sector to GNP) : the bulk of the growth since then has been in large-scale industries, raising its contribution to the GNP almost six-fold. Then, upto the late fifties there was heavy concentration on consumer goods industries which claimed more than 60 per cent of the industrial investment. Of these, three industries claimed most attention, based as they were on domestically produced raw material—agricultural processing, food products, and textiles—which accounted, in 1954, for 75 per cent of the total value of large-scale industrial production. In 1958, food, textiles and footwear industries contributed almost 60 per cent to the total industrial production of large-scale concerns. Since then there has been considerable diversification in this line also. The production of fertilisers, papers, newsprint, wires and cables, and several chemicals is rising rapidly. A beginning has

been made in steel and other heavy industries. There is in the current Plan (1965-70)a greater emphasis on capital good industries with a view to import substitution, to greater saving for increased investment, and to earning more foreign exchange.

Cotton Textiles

Cotton textile is the largest industry in Pakistan, making up at present 30 per cent of the gross national product contributed by the manufacturing sector, and earning substantial foreign-exchange. Developed almost entirely by private enterprise, it provides employment for more than 200,000 persons. In 1964-65 there were more than 120 textile mills with a loomage of over 40,000. The production, which has continually been rising, now stands at 520 million lbs of yarn and 760 million yards of cloth a year.

The domestic consumption now is 14 yards per head per annum, and is expected to be raised to 18 yards by 1970. The major share of the increase is to be in East Pakistan, where, in the past, consumption has been low for a variety of reasons.

TABLE 15
COTTON TEXTILE INDUSTRY

	Position in 1964-65	*Target for 1970*
Total production of yarn	520 million lbs	720 million lbs
Spindlage	2.58 million	4 million
Loomage	37,000	55,000
Total domestic consumption	430 million lbs	458 million lbs
Exports	80 million lbs	160 million lbs
Per capita consumption	14 yards	18 yards

Source: *Third Five-Year Plan*

Jute Goods

Jute is used for a variety of purposes, from packaging and furnishing to textiles. It is one of the cheapest and strongest materials and no efforts to find its substitute have been fully successful so far. The world demand continues to increase.

Manufactured jute is the most important export of Pakistan. On independence all the jute mills with 57 per cent of the world's loomage and contributing nearly 70 per cent of the world jute goods production fell within the Indian Union, with only the main jute growing districts coming to Pakistan. In other words, Pakistan grew all the

TABLE 16
JUTE INDUSTRY

	Position in 1964-65	*Target for 1970*
Number of looms	12,500	30,000
Production	350,000 tons	800,000 tons
Export	250,000 tons	650,000 tons
Foreign exchange earnings	Rs 350 millions	Rs 800 millions
No. of broad-looms	400	2,500
Broad-loom production	19,200 tons	120,000

Source: *Third Five-Year Plan*

jute required for India's manufacturing industry and possessed no jute mills herself.

The PIDC and its successor in east wing were entrusted with the task of setting up a jute industry. Soon afterwards the newly established industry succeeded in capturing an important share of the world market for jute products.

There are now 22 jute mills in East Pakistan; 11 more are under speedy construction; and expansion of some of the existing mills is in hand. A beginning has also been made with the setting up of broad-looms, of which some 1200 are being installed. Broad-loom products are used as backing cloth for carpets, for upholstery, roofing felts *etc.*

Forest Industries

Forest resources of the country, especially in the western wing, are limited. However, what resources there are are being fully exploited. Industries, such as timber seasoning and preservation plants, chip, particle and hard-board plants, plywood plants and paper mills are being set up. The wood processing capacity has developed to 58,100 tons, that of plywood to 1½ million sq. ft. and of tea chestes to 700,000 in number. It is being further expanded to a production worth Rs. 28½ million by 1970. Manufacture of cork is also projected, and industries based on cane and bamboo are being developed.

Timber

The availability of timber per capita is very low. According to recent findings by the Timber Control Board the demand in the province is already much higher than the supply.

Modern methods of extraction and techniques for felling, transportation and conversion, and the use of mechanised or semi-mechanised equipment such as rope-ways, slip-ways etc., are gradually being introduced on a large scale to avoid unnecessary wastage of timber.

At present two schemes of the WPIDC, relating to saw milling, seasoning and preservation of timber, are under execution. The Havelian timber preservation and treatment project envisages saw milling, seasoning and preservation of 1,500,000 cubic feet per year of soft wood to be extracted from Hazara and Kaghan forests. There is also a provision to preserve 10,000 transmission poles annually. Piranwala timber seasoning project is intended to season 40,000 cubic feet of *shisham* timber per annum.

Paper and Board

Although by 1944 the subcontinent was producing approximately 100,000 tons of paper by machine, the only paper being made in Pakistan areas at independence was hand-made, produced in Jhelum and Sialkot. However, within 7 years the country was producing its own paper by machine. The present production capacity of paper and newsprint has risen from nothing in 1947 to 89,000 tons per year. The quality of newsprint compares favourably with that of other countries, and the surplus tonnage is exported to Malaysia, Hong Kong, Vietnam, Singapore, Ceylon, Burma, Thailand and some other countries, bringing in foreign exchange of more than Rs 7½ million in 1965.

However, the consumption of paper in the country is still 2 lb per capita per annum which indicates a high potential for the growth of the industry. Based on the growth rate of 3 per cent in the per capita income per annum, and the population growth rate of 2.8 per cent per annum during the current Plan period, the demand for paper, including newsprint, will increase to 200,000 tons per annum by 1970.

The Karnaphuli Paper Mill, completed in October, 1953, produces 33,000 tons of different varieties of paper every year. The basic material used is bamboo. It comes plentifully from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, which had so far been good only for big game hunting.

The newsprint factory at Khulna, set up in June 1959, uses the plentiful soft-wood from the Sundarbans forests. It is also equipped to produce straw-board and card-board from the large quantities of fibrous raw material available in the form of wild grasses and wheat and rice straws. The production capacity of the mill, sufficient to meet the entire domestic requirements, has been expanded to 55,000 tons. Of this 45,000 tons are newsprint and the balance mechanical printing and tissue papers.

The North Bengal Paper Mills, another project of the EPIDC, is to produce 16,500 tons of fine paper from bagasse, which is a fibrous residue of milled sugarcane.

Every year about 2.3 million tons of jute sticks go waste. The EPIDC is considering setting up a pulp and paper mill based on jute sticks.

There is a high grade card-board factory established at Nowshera, in West wing, to manufacture board from grass. The installed capacity of the factory is 30 to 32 tons per day, or an average of 7,500 tons per annum. A straw-board mill, set up at Rahwali in Gujrat District, has the capacity to produce 30 tons of straw board and wrapping paper per day from rice stocks.

The sanctioned capacity of paper board is 70,000 tons, against which 60,000 were in production during 1965. In view of the fact that the production of paper board is based on agricultural and industrial wastes and has a limited import requirement, the target during the Third Plan is fixed at 100,000 tons.

In West Pakistan paper is also being produced from such raw materials as bagasse from sugarcane, wheat straw, cotton linters, local grass and waste paper.

TABLE 17
PAPER PRODUCTION

	Position in 1964-65	*Target for* 1970
Writing, printing and packing paper	47,000 tons	100,000 tons
Newsprint & mechanical paper	42,000 tons	100,000 tons
Board	27,000 tons	100,000 tons

Source : *The Third Five-Year Plan*

Cement

One of the few industries that existed in Pakistan areas at independence was that of cement. The annual production of it in 1947 was 300,000 tons. By 1953-54 it increased to 660,000 tons, against the demand of over one million tons. At this stage the PIDC had to take the initiative. It established two cement factories, the Zeal Pak and Maple Leaf (with the aid of New Zealand and Canadian Governments respectively), at Hyderabad and Daudkhel, which went into production in 1956, increasing the capacity to nearly 900,000 tons. The present rated capacity of the nine cement factories in Pakistan is nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million tons; the production is 2 million tons, against a consumption of 3 million tons. By 1970 a target of 6 million is expected to be achieved. There has been a steady rise in the domestic consumption, at an average of over 12 per cent per year.

Cement is one of the industries for which all the raw materials are available in the country. The shortage is in the Eastern wing, chiefly of lime-stone, for which the supplies from India, when they came, had been inadequate. Explorations are under way seeking deposits in this province.

Leather & leather products

Hides and skins contribute substantially to foreign exchange earnings, and there is a much greater potential.

The annual production of hides and skins in the country is estimated at 16 million pieces, valued at Rs 135 million. Of these, approximately 6 million pieces are tanned in Pakistan and the balance exported in raw state.

There are now over 80 large and medium sized tanneries and thousands of small and cottage scale tanning units. The annual capacity is over 40 million square feet of upper leather and 30 million pounds of sole leather (against 1 million and $1\frac{1}{2}$ million respectively in 1948). This capacity is sufficient to meet the internal demand.

The export of shoes, leather and leather products, amounting to about Rs 42 million in 1964-65, is expected to reach Rs 60 million by 1970. The new capacity will include tanning, curing and finishing of all kinds of hides and skins, and embossing and japanning of leather and manufacture of leather belting.

Chemicals & Pharmaceuticals

The installed capacity for soda ash stands at 136,000 tons. Of caustic soda the capacity was about 65,000 tons. In view of the fact that the growth of glass, soap, textile and some other industries is dependent on the development of this industry, the Third Five-Year Plan has prescribed a target of 208,000 tons of soda ash and 90,000 tons of caustic soda.

During the Second Plan period, six petrochemical units were sanctioned for production of synthetic fibre: PAN (5,000 tons), nylon (1,400 tons), polyethylene (5,000 tons), PVC (5,000 tons), urea formaldehyde moulding compound (2,280 tons), and nylon monofilament (400 tons).

Until 1960, the import of drugs and medicines claimed about Rs 60 million per annum. The home industry's capacity consisted only in processing and repacking imported drugs. The penicillin factory built during the First Plan period was the only exception.

The firms engaged in processing and repacking have been encouraged to undertake basic manufacture of drugs from local raw materials and imported intermediates. An ambitious programme for the manufacture of tablets, liquid preparation injectibles, santonin and ephedrine is also under way. A few basic products like santonin, liver extracts, ephedrine and penicillin are now already being manufactured within the country.

A DDT plant is built by the PIDC with the help of WHO in the First Plan period. Another at Chittagong with a capacity of 5 metric tons is now in hand. A large pharmaceutical project in association with a British firm is to be completed soon. This factory is to produce anti-malarial drugs, sulphur drugs and anti-histamines. The Streptomycin Factory at Dacca, with a rated capacity of 20 tons, has just been completed.

It was decided in October 1966 to establish a petro-chemical complex. A central naptha cracking plant will be set up in Karachi, with naptha obtained from the oil refineries. It will produce about 40,000 tons of ethylene, 20,000 tons of propylene, 13,500 tons of C4 fracta and 32,000 tons of gas. From these, intermediate petro-chemicals, like polyethylene PVC, polysostrene, polyester fibre and resins, polypropylene fibre and plastic, dedecyl benzene methenol and formaldehyde can be developed for further use.

Fertilisers

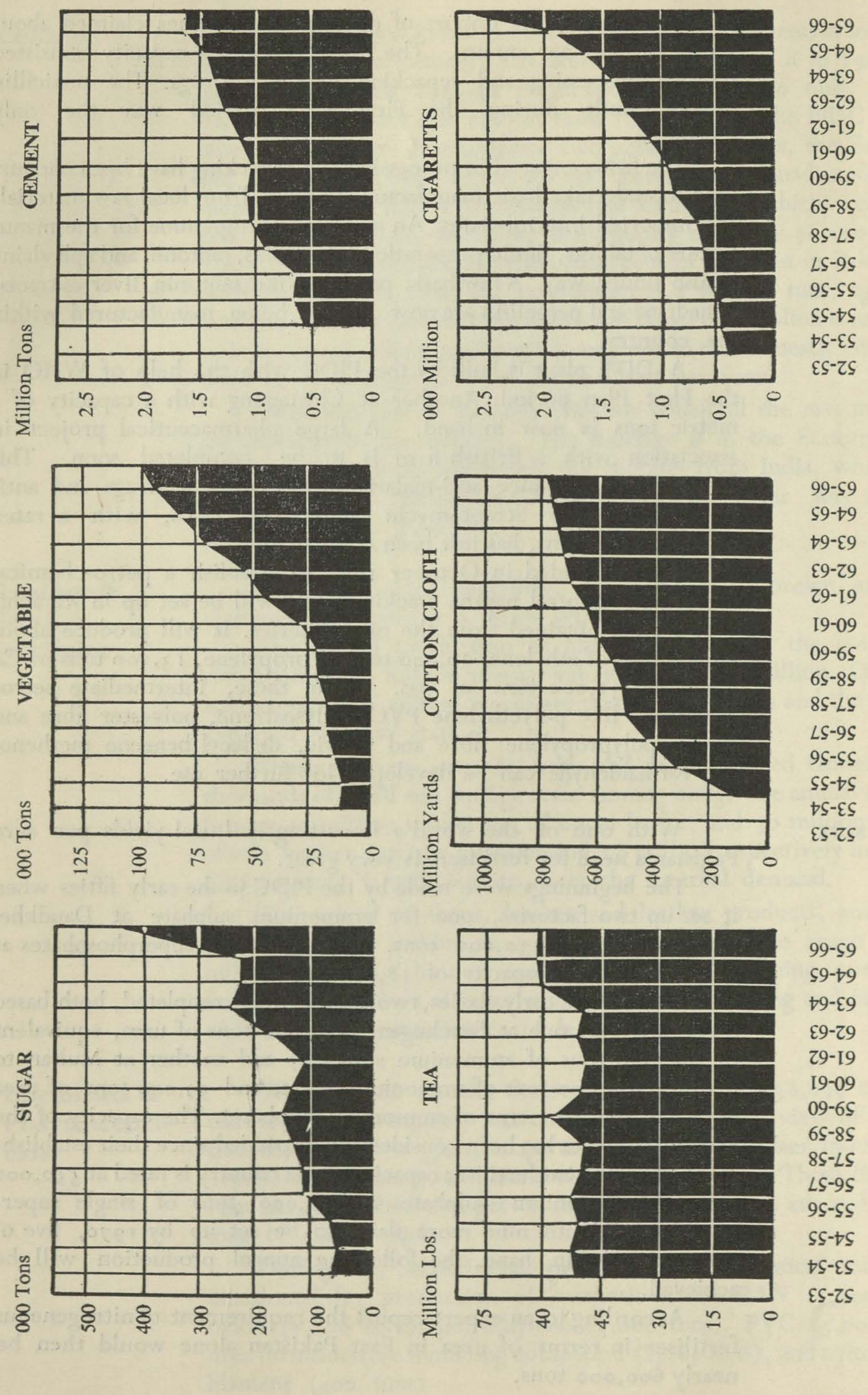
With one of the world's lowest agricultural yields per acre Pakistan's need for fertilisers is very great.

The beginnings were made by the PIDC in the early fifties when it set up two factories, one for ammonium sulphate at Daudkhel with a capacity of 50,000 tons, and another for superphosphates at Lyallpur, with a capacity of 18,000 tons.

Later in the early sixties, two plants were completed, both based on natural gas: one at Fenchuganj (117,000 tons of urea, equivalent to 250,000 tons of ammonium sulphate) and another at Multan to produce 103,000 tons of ammonium nitrate and 59,000 tons of urea (250,000 tons in terms of ammonium sulphate). The capacity of the existing factories has been considerably expanded since their establishment. The present fertiliser capacity of the country is rated at 550,000 tons of ammonium sulphate and 18,000 tons of single superphosphate. With nine more plants to be set up by 1970, five of them already in hand, the following annual production will be achieved.

According to an expert report the requirement of nitrogeneous fertiliser in terms of urea in East Pakistan alone would then be nearly 600,000 tons.

PRODUCTION OF SELECTED INDUSTRIAL ITEMS



Source: *Central Statistical Office*

TABLE 18
FERTILISER PRODUCTION IN 1970

	Thousand tons
Ammonium Sulphate	257
Ammonium Nitrate	103
Ammonium Sulphate Nitrate	462
Ammonium Chloride	58
Diammonium Phosphate	183
Urea	589
Single Super-phosphate	54
Triple Super-phosphate	462

Sugar

Independence brought seven sugar factories to the share of Pakistan—two in West Pakistan and five in East Pakistan. Between them they were capable of producing only about 50,000 tons of white sugar for a population of 75 million. Large quantities had therefore to be imported and upto 1957, Rs 560 million worth of foreign exchange were spent on this item.

PIDC started by setting up two mills in West and three in East Pakistan: the Jauharabad and Charsadda Sugar Mills in West Pakistan and the Rangpur, Thakurgaon and Zeal Pak Sugar Mills in East Pakistan. In the Second Plan period, four large sized mills were completed in the private sector and two more are nearing completion. WPIDC was assigned the setting up of two sugar mills in under-developed areas, *i.e.* the tribal territories of Bannu in the north-west and the newly irrigated southern tracts of the Ghulam Mohammad Barrage.

The production now is over 273,000 tons annually. It is expected to rise to 640,000 tons by 1970.

Exploitation has also begun of the by-products of the sugar industry and more units are being set up for distillation of molasses and, for making paper and boards from bagasse. Distillation of molasses can produce cosmetic products, pest control media, plastics, artificial resins, glycerine, lactric acid, yeast, gluconic acid, citric acid, blood plasma substitutes, tanning materials and various other products.

The sugar industry is considered almost unique in the multilateral benefits it brings, in the technological, agricultural and commercial fields. It creates very large direct and indirect employment in areas around a mill site. Apart from employing about a thousand hands in the sugarcane and beet crushing and processing operations, the mill offers marketing facilities to thousands of growers.

Fruit & Vegetable Preservation

There are at present over 200 factories engaged in fruit and vegetable preservation, mostly working on small or cottage scale. The installed capacity is 15,298 tons per annum and the production is over 10 million lbs (4,500 tons) per annum valued at about Rs 25 million. Exports now standing at about Rs 4 million; are being raised

to Rs. 10 million by 1970.

Fish Canning & Preservation

Fish exports stand at 47 thousand tons annually. This is expected to increase three-fold by 1970. Besides, the internal demand is also rising. In view of this additional capacity for canning and preservation of 45,000 tons is being created. Fish liver oil is being produced on commercial scale. The possibility of producing fish flour for mixing with wheat and rice flour so as to provide cheap but high protein diet is being explored.

Tobacco

Production of cigarettes stood at about 18,500 million in 1964-65 and is being increased to 30,000 million by 1970. Cigars and cheroots have an installed capacity of 11 million. Expansion of this industry has been envisaged by the addition of small-sized units and the development of tobacco processing capacity.

Vegetable oils

Annual production of cotton seed approximates 780,000 tons. With growing production of cotton it is expected to be raised to over 1.2 million tons by 1970. The oil produced is about 25,000 tons. Hydrogenated vegetable oils (vegetable ghee) totalled nearly 90,000 tons during 1964-65. Self-sufficiency was achieved in this item, but in view of growing demand the capacity is to be increased by 25,000 tons during the Third Plan period.

Surgical & other instruments

The surgical industry is mainly concentrated in Sialkot area of West Pakistan, where 90 per cent of the total production of the country is manufactured. It has been mainly organised on cottage scale basis. The industry exports about 90 per cent of its products, which are of superior quality. Application of new methods is envisaged to standardise the products.

The range of surgical and veterinary instruments made is very wide. The capacity sanctioned upto December 1964 was for production of hospital and medical equipment, surgical instrument and artificial limbs.

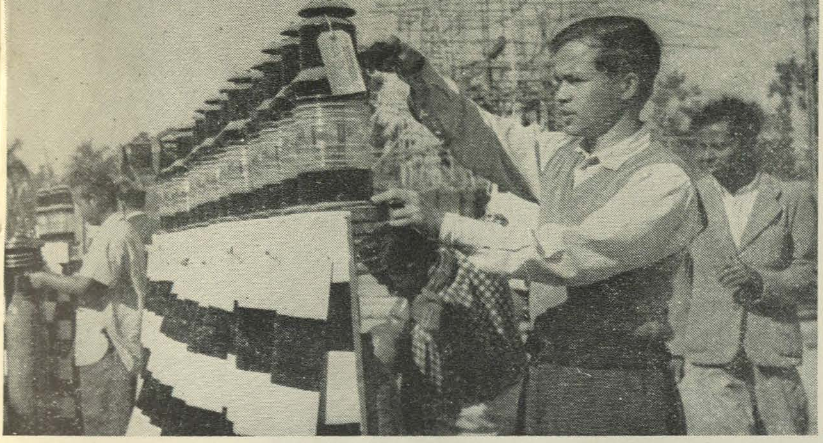
It is estimated that the total present production of this industry is worth about Rs 10 million per annum.

Additional capacity to produce goods such as surgical, medical and dental equipment worth Rs 30 million is proposed during 1965-70. This will involve a capital investment of Rs 20.7 million in large, medium and small units.

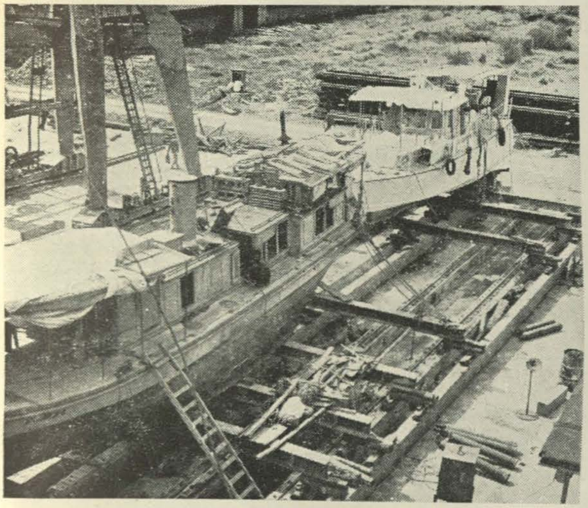
Surgical goods worth Rs 2.5 million were exported during 1963-64 and an export projection of Rs 25 million has been made for 1969-70.

Sports goods

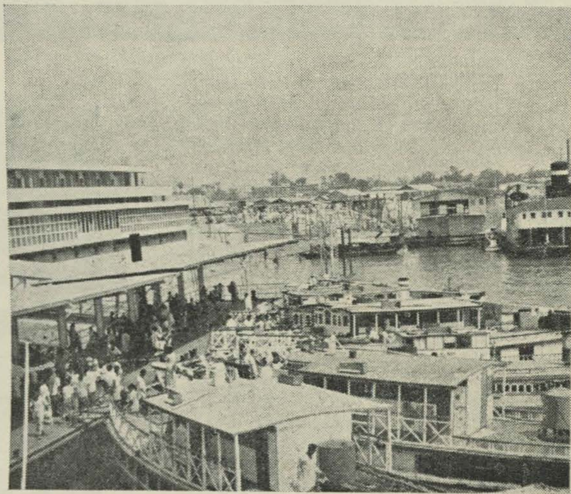
The sports goods industry provides employment opportunities to thousands of people and earns considerable foreign exchange. The products of this industry, which is also concentrated in Sialkot, are of high quality and enjoy a good reputation abroad.



Mechanics synchronising light beacons in the marine workshop of East Pakistan Inland Water Transport Authority at Barisal. The beacons are installed on the banks of the rivers to mark the channels for safe navigation. The automatic beacons have replaced bamboo marks which were previously used to mark the channels.



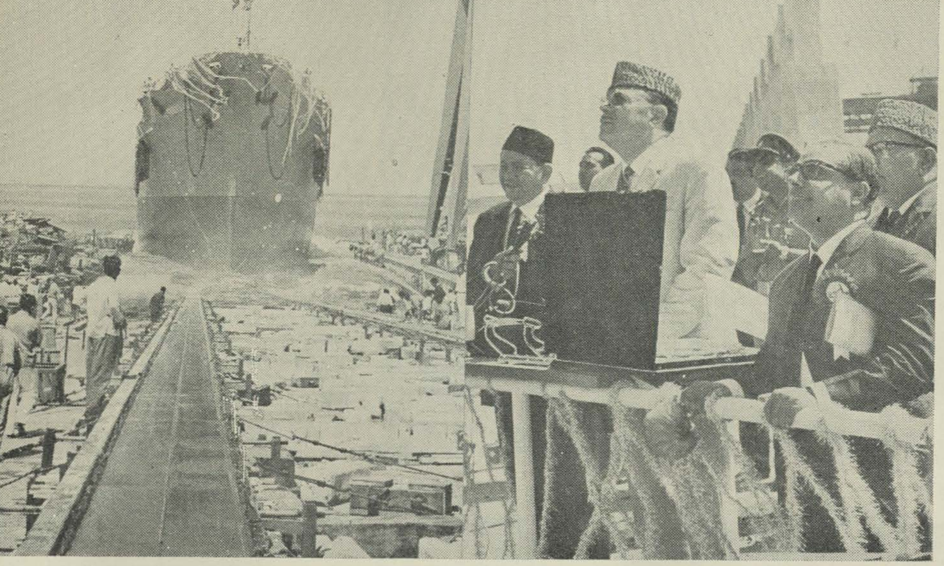
A view of Khulna Shipyard, East Pakistan.



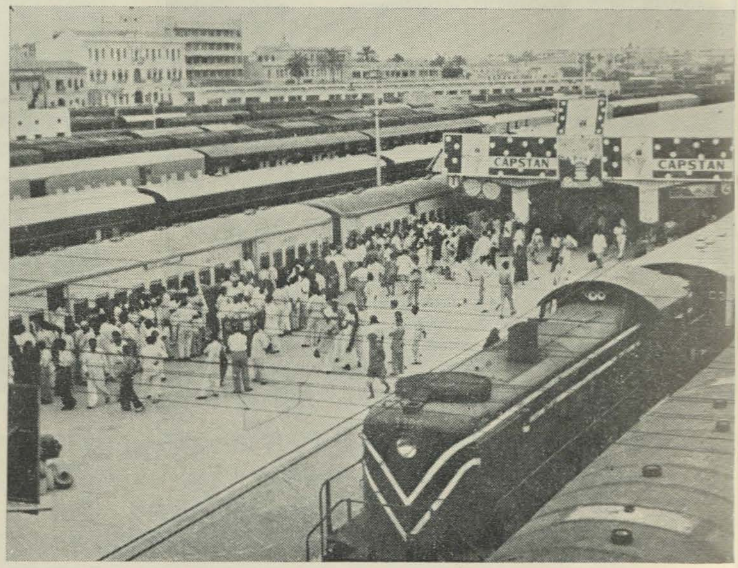
A passenger launch terminal at Narayanganj which handles more than 10,000 passengers daily.

Pakistan International Airlines is the national airline touching all the four corners of the world.

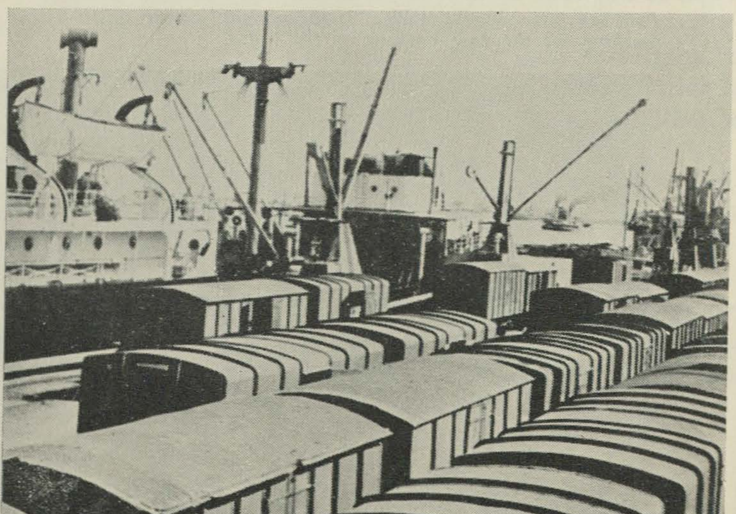




The President of Pakistan, Field Marshal Mohammad Ayub Khan, launched on May 4, 1966 the first Pakistani-built ocean-going vessel, s.s. "Al-Abbas", constructed at the Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works of WPIDC. Picture shows the President looking at the floating vessel from the launching pad.

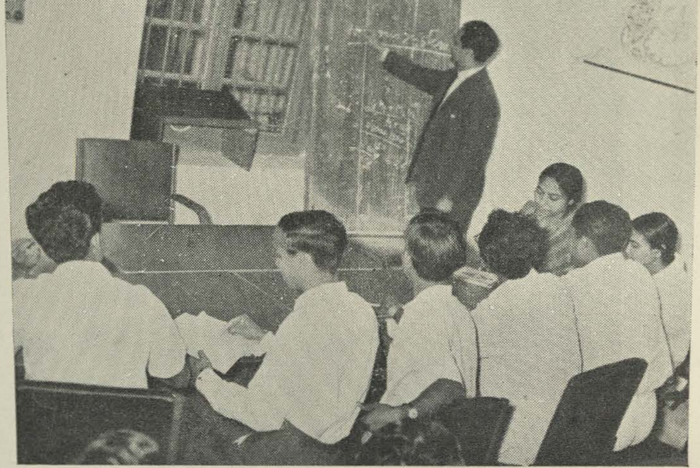


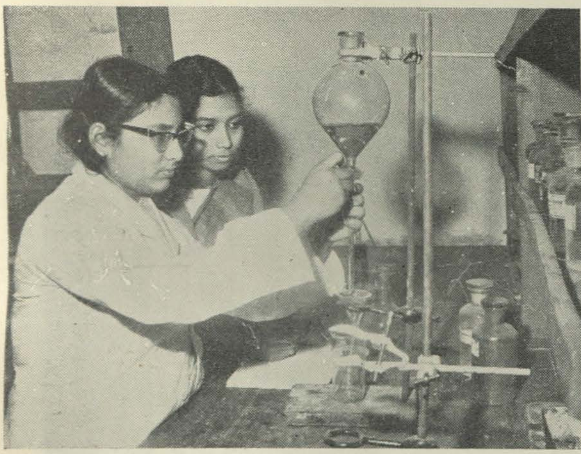
A view of Cantonment Railway Station, Karachi.



A view of Chittagong port.

A class in progress in one of the colleges of East Pakistan.





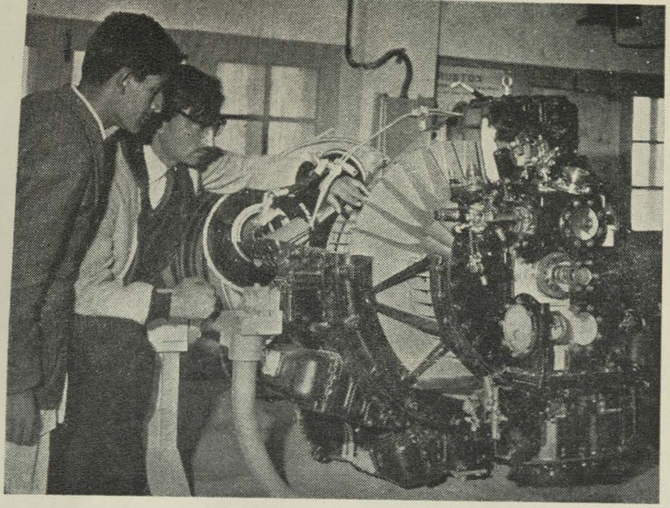
Girls doing practical work in a College Laboratory.

Clay-Modelling at the National College of Arts, Lahore.





Young artists doing portrait painting as part of their regular course at the College of Arts and Crafts, Dacca.



Engineering students of Peshawar University doing their practical work.

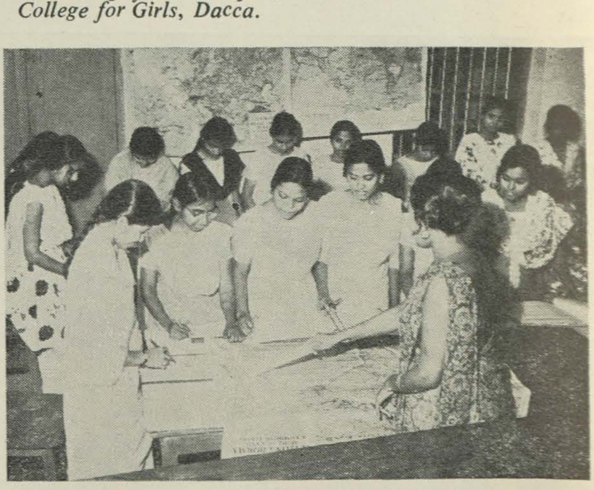


Medical students attending a class in Anatomy at the Dow Medical College, Karachi.



Research workers busy at Central Testing Laboratories, Karachi.

A Geography class in progress at the Eden College for Girls, Dacca.



During the Second Plan period there was a big increase in exports. In 1964-65, the total export amounted to Rs 19.37 million as against Rs 11.52 million in 1960-61. An earning of Rs 30 million is envisaged during 1965-70.

Additional capacity to produce goods worth Rs 17.5 million through large, medium and small units are to be created during the Third Plan period, which will entail an investment of Rs 16.4 million, inclusive of balancing, modernisation and replacement cost of the existing units.

Ship Building and Engineering Works

Government had included ship-building as one of the first six industries to be developed by the PIDC. Among other things, it would help in maintaining effective communication between the two wings of the country by sea. The scheme for the establishment of a shipyard at Karachi was prepared with the assistance of a German firm and the work started in the middle 1953. It was completed in less than four years at a cost of Rs 87.8 million.

Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works (KSEW)

Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works (KSEW) is one of Government's largest projects. Occupying an area of over 343,000 square yards and a water frontage of 3,500 feet in length, the shipyard is connected to the Karachi harbour with a channel having sufficient depth to take in ships upto 30,000 dwt. There are electric, oxygen, acetylene and Sui gas facilities. The 1,500 feet long fitting out quay has a dredged depth of 22 feet and is equipped with connecting points for the supply of both AC and DC power, compressed air, oxygen, acetylene, fresh water and natural gas. The quay wall crane has a lifting capacity of 30 tons and a reach of 80 feet. It has a modern dry dock which can take vessels upto a draft of 22 feet with high tide. It is served with a lifting crane of 5 to 10 tons lifting capacity.

The shipyard can build ships upto the range of 10,000 to 12,000 tons and upto 1964 it had built 72 small vessels of various types. It can undertake any type of floating and under-water repairs of any vessels likely to enter the port of Karachi, including oil tankers.

In the field of hydraulic steel construction the shipyard has been fabricating gates for big barrages, like the Guddu, Teesta, Feni and Noakhali projects.

It manufactured transmission towers for Warsak-Wah-Kharian Transmission Line, and 15,000 towers for distribution of electricity in the rural areas of West Pakistan.

Besides these, the shipyard has manufactured and supplied about 25 per cent of the total machinery for the Jaipurhat sugar mill. A considerable number of items like juice heaters, vacuum pans, crystallisers, cane carriers, and other assemblies and components for almost all the sugar mills in Pakistan are being supplied by the shipyard and thus save considerable foreign exchange.

There are large steel, cast iron and non-ferrous foundries which manufacture all types of marine castings at very short notice to

facilitate speedy ship repairs and also various machinery components for other major industries.

Narayanganj Dockyard

In East Pakistan inland water transport remains the single major method of communication both for the community and commodities. As such the role of the shipyard and dockyard in the wing is of crucial importance.

The Narayanganj Dockyard which originally belonged to the East Pakistan Government was taken over by the PIDC in 1954 and converted into a public limited company with itself holding 40 per cent share in the Rs 7½ million capital structure. In order to be able to undertake docking and under-water repairs of vessels, including dredgers, oil tankers and coastal vessels, the dockyard is adding a dry dock to its establishment. The scheme, costing nearly Rs 5 million (the foreign exchange component supplied by a Japanese loan) has been recently completed.

Khulna Shipyard

The Khulna shipyard, established by the PIDC in 1957 to supplement the effort of the ship-building industry in the public sector, has also been converted into a public limited company, with an issued capital of Rs 41½ million.

This shipyard is bigger than the Narayanganj Dockyard not only in size but also in its capacity for reconstruction, repairs and other engineering works. It can handle vessels upto 700 dwt as opposed to 300 dwt at Narayanganj.

Chittagong Dry Dock

The Industrial Development Corporation is now entering into a bigger field in this industry. It is establishing a dry dock and heavy structural works at Chittagong. This dry dock will undertake the docking and under-water repairs of ocean-going vessels, both foreign and national, upto 12,000 tons (anything larger cannot be handled inside the Chittagong harbour). It will also provide facilities for the building of vessels for inland transport.

Heavy Industries

Chittagong Steel Mill

The iron and steel mill at Chittagong, which has gone into trial production early in 1967, and has cost over Rs 270 million, is the first in the entire country. It will have an initial production capacity of 150,000 tons of steel ingots per year and capacity is being expanded to produce upto 250,000 tons of steel ingots.

Chittagong was considered suitable for this project because the scrap iron to feed the furnaces will be imported in ships from all over the world and Chittagong is the only suitable port to accommodate these ships. The same applies to the transportation of finished goods.

Kalabagh Steel Mill

The attempts made over the past 15 years to locate sizeable deposits of workable iron ore in Pakistan and the best method of taking iron out of them had some success recently. By deep drilling operations spread over a period of about two years (1960 to 1962) under the UN-Pakistan Mineral Survey Project, it was proved that there

existed more than 125 million tons of iron ore in the Chichali area of Kalabagh in Mianwali district. A semi-industrial test on 1,500 tons of Chichali iron ore was carried out in 1964 in Belgium which proved that the acid blast furnace process was suitable for smelting this ore. The WPIDC, therefore, prepared a scheme for putting up a steel mill of 500,000 tons a year capacity, representing one-third of the expected demand of the country in 1970. The cost of the project is nearly Rs. 1,400 million. The proposed production programme of the mill, which is flexible enough for any market conditions at a given time, is as under:

Pig iron	20,000	tons
Billets and bars	200,000	tons
Sections	100,000	tons
Rails	60,000	tons
Medium plates	120,000	tons
Total	500,000	tons

The products of the mill would bring in a revenue of Rs 442½ million annually and save more than Rs 117 million per year in foreign exchange after making full allowance for depreciation, interest on foreign loan, employment of foreign personnel, import of spare parts and raw materials.

Machine Tool Factory

A machine tool factory, costing a little under a hundred million rupees, will go into production by the end of 1967. This factory will produce small to medium size precision machine tools, such as milling machines, radial drilling machines and lathes of the type which are not at present manufactured in Pakistan. Another factory has been sanctioned in East Pakistan at an estimated cost of Rs 240 million.

Heavy Machine Complex

A heavy machine complex project has been planned in the context of the Economic and Technical Co-operation Agreement signed between Pakistan and China in February 1965. Under this Agreement, China is giving $ 60 million loan to Pakistan (interest free and repayable after 20 years). The project is estimated to cost a little over Rs 121¼ million, almost one-third of it in foreign exchange.

The scheme will take three years to go into initial production and nine years to develop to full production. When in full production it will produce 14,500 tons of capital goods costing Rs 61¼ million every year.

The goods will include cement factories, sugar factories, boilers, cranes, railway materials and road building equipment. It will also provide machining facilities for heavy equipment to outside factories, particularly to the Heavy Electrical Complex (see below).

Heavy Electrical Complex

The Heavy Electrical Complex project will cost nearly 102 million rupees one-half in foreign exchange.

The production programme of this Complex covers the manufacture of heavy type capital electrical goods. The total output value of the production items will be Rs 45 million but this will be progressively increased to Rs 90 million in the course of 10 years by working double shift.

Other Projects

Among other engineering ventures, the EPIDC is going to establish a machine tools factory and diesel engine manufacturing plant at Joydebpur, 23 miles from Dacca.

A diesel engine manufacturing plant is being established in collaboration with a German manufacturing firm and Pakistani associates. It will manufacture marine diesel engines and industrial and stationery engines ranging from 8 h.p. to 265 h.p. In addition it will manufacture centrifugal pumps from 1 to 7 cusec capacity.

Small and Cottage Industries

Small industries are defined by the Planning Commission as industries which employ manual labour but do not use any motive power, or industries which use motive power and use fixed assets, other than land, valued at *not* more than Rs 250,000. Cottage industries are those industries which are run in the home, usually with the help of members of the family.

Within the general limitation, the small and cottage industries of Pakistan have a wide range—from village handicrafts using no power to large industrial undertakings employing modern technology, substantial power, and concentrations of high level manpower.

In order to promote small scale industries, a subject ordinarily the responsibility of the provinces, the centre set up a Directorate of Cottage and Small Industries under the Ministry of Industries. For financial assistance, a network of branches of the Small Scale Industries Development Corporation was established.

Capital investment in cottage industries is negligible and mainly consists of simple implements. The main need is short-term credit. Cottage industries may be urban or rural. In rural areas these are closely allied to agriculture, and include poultry keeping, bee-keeping, sericulture, rice-husking, gur making and others. It is estimated that about 3 million agriculturists are engaged in such industries. In urban areas the main cottage industries include handicrafts like ivory-work, cane-work, gold and silver ornaments and embroidery, tanning and manufacture of leather goods, musical instruments, sports goods, brass and glass bangles, *etc.* It is estimated that roughly 1.8 million persons are engaged in such industries.

The most important cottage industry in Pakistan is the handloom industry, employing about 400,000 persons. Until 1954 it had been meeting the bulk of the country's requirements of cloth.

In the Second Five-Year Plan, provision of Rs 284 million as government investment was made for promotional measures, such as the setting up of small industries estates, common facility centres, and technical and management service centres.

The East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation took up the establishment of 19 industrial estates. Out of 19 estates, 6 were completed and 7 were at an advanced stage of execution during the Second Plan period. In West Pakistan, the small industries division of the WPIDC and the Industries Directorate took up the establishment of nine small industrial estates and a number of service facility centres, design centres, sales and display centres, common facility centres and training centres.

In the Third Plan a total allocation of Rs 463.5 million has been made for the small industries promotional programme. The governing principles in this respect are as follows:

(*i*) to adapt small industries to changing technological, economic and social conditions;

(*ii*) to stimulate production of implements and equipment required for agriculture;

(*iii*) to encourage the processing of indigenous raw materials and specialisation;

(*iv*) to create additional employment opportunities;

(*v*) to modernise such existing units as have sound economic prospects;

(*vi*) to encourage the growth of cottage industries in rural areas generally, and in particular wherever resources and markets are available;

(*vii*) to bring about a closer relationship between small and large industries, through the production of spares and accessories or components for large scale industry or through providing facilities for the maintenance and repair of equipment in use in large scale industries or in other sectors of economy; and

(*viii*) to preserve and promote traditional arts and crafts.

TABLE 19

INDUSTRIAL PRODUCTION 1958, '59 & '65

Item	Unit	1958	1959	1965
1	2	3	4	5
FOOD MANUFACTURES				
Tea	million lbs. ..	57.5	58.0	59.9[a]
Sugar	'000 tons	162.6	167.2	273.0[a]
Hydrogenated vegetable oil ..	,, ,,	20.4	27.1	100.5[a]
Sea salt	,, ,,	349	293	455
TOBACCO MANUFACTURES				
Cigarettes	million nos. ..	7,468	8,771	22,009

Item	Unit	1958	1959	1965
1	2	3	4	5
TEXTILE MANUFACTURES				
Cotton yarn ..	.. million lbs. ..	345.1	392.1	504.5[a]
Cotton cloth ..	.. Million yards ..	576.2	618.5	719.2[a]
Silk (art) and rayon cloth	.. " Sq. yards	9.0	19.3	32.0
Woollen, worsted yarn	.. Million lbs. ..	6.9	5.3	N.A.
Jute goods ..	.. '000 tons ..	172	233	374
LEATHER MANUFACTURES				
Upper leather (tanned)	.. Million sq. ft. ..	18.0	18.0	N.A.
Sole leather ..	.. Million lbs. ..	11.5	11.5	N.A.
RUBBER MANUFACTURES				
Tyres and tubes ..	.. '000 nos. ..	2,705	2,778	5,323
CHEMICAL FERTILIZER				
Superphosphates ..	.. tons ..	1,089	1,529	8,940
Ammonium sulphate	.. "	20,140	42,078	37,931
Urea	.. " ..	—	—	130,144
Ammonium nitrate ..	.. " ..	—	—	58,185[b]
OTHER CHEMICALS				
Sulphuric acid ..	.. tons ..	6,793	10,251	22,161
Soda ash	.. '000 tons ..	26.5	26.9	33.0
SAFETY MATCHES				
20 and 30 sticks ..	.. '000 gross boxes	336	67	—
40-60 sticks ..	.. "	7,406	8,326	13,150
PAPER				
Printing ..	.. tons ..	12,177	13,064	25,631
Writing ..	.. "	4,286	6,069	9,408
Packing and other paper	"	8,385	6,162	7,948

Item	Unit	1958	1959	1965
1	2	3	4	5
Newsprint	,, ..	—	3,532[c]	37,360
BOARD				
Straw	tons ..	4,157	4,681	5,106
Paper	,, ..	6,648	7,641	14,870
Chip	,, ..	535	1,075	4,185
PAINTS AND VARNISHES	'000 cwt ..	N.A.	N.A.	89
	'000 gallons ..	N.A.	N.A.	1,204
PETROLEUM MANUFACTURES				
Diesel oil				
Low speed	million I.G. ..	8.2	7.8	9.6
High speed	,,	9.0	10.0	144.6
Motor spirit	,,	21.9	25.0	111.9
Kerosene oil	,,	3.8	3.9	87.6
Furnace oil	,, ..	24.2	25.6	293.4
Cement	'000 tons ..	107.2	98.6	168.0
Basic metal industries				
Steel ingots	'000 tons ..	1.0	1.1	1.2
Steel re-rolling	,,	9.5	11.2	N.A.

Source: *Central Statistical Office.*

(*a*) Provisional.
(*b*) Data relate to ten months.
(*c*) ,, ,, five months.

— =Nil or insignificant.
N.A. =Not available.

9. WATER AND POWER

Responsibility for Development of Water and Power. Natural Resources Division; Water and Power Development Authority.

WATER. Introductory.

East Pakistan. Floods; Irrigation Problems; Major Flood and Irrigation Projects.

West Pakistan. Irrigation; Waterlogging and Salinity; Soil Erosion; Major Water Development Projects; Indus Basin Treaty; Replacement Works.

POWER. Introductory.

East Pakistan. Progress; Plan; Major Projects.

West Pakistan. Power Resources; Development; Major Projects.

General responsibility for effective and conducted development of water, power, and other natural resources of the country lies with the Government. The national policies in this field are decided by the Ministry of Industries and Natural Resources on the recommendation of the Chief Engineering Adviser. The executive part is carried out by an autonomous body in each Wing of the country called the Water and Power Development Authority (WAPDA). Formed* as a statutory corporate body under Acts of the Provincial Governments, the Authority is charged with the responsibility of multipurpose development of the water and power resources within the province on a unified and coordinated basis, including reclamation of water-logged, salinized and flooded areas. It is also assigned the task of making the electricity system adequate for the growing industrial and agricultural needs of the province. The West Pakistan WAPDA is, in addition, entrusted with the task of implementing the Indus Basin Settlement Plan as an agent of the Government.

WATER

Pakistan's farmlands draw their irrigation both directly from natural resources and through man-made devices. In East Pakistan almost entirely in the first way, and in West Pakistan mostly in the second.

*In West Pakistan in 1958, and in East Pakistan in 1959.

Water constitutes for Pakistan both a problem and a blessing. Its abundance in East Pakistan provides the region with sustenance for the teeming population of a thousand to a square mile, and the annual floods help make the soil fertile. The main food crop is grown during this period, taking advantage of rain-fall. But floods take a heavy annual toll of life and property and damage the standing crop. At the same time, the province is without rainfall for a major part of the year, during which need for irrigation is being increasingly felt for growing a second and a third crop to meet the great demand of a fast growing population. In the western wing the water supply from the northern rivers are the sustenance of this region but for the utilization of which this region would have been, as it once was, a desert. Again these waters is also responsible for an appalling rate of land deterioration, due to salinity and waterlogging. Secondly, there are still vast acres in the western region which are cultivable, but lie fallow for want of water. Yet another aspect of the problem is soil erosion. The challenge, therefore, is :

(*a*) Taking long-term effective measures for the control of floods, and for forestalling damage;

(*b*) Reclaiming land presently not available for cultivation due to floods, waterlogging, salinity and soil erosion;

(*c*) Adopting measures to prevent waterlogging, etc; and

(*d*) Reaching out water to unirrigated parts.

These objectives have had a special urgency both on account of humanitarian and economic reasons. The present per capita holding of about 0.61 acre is, for an underdeveloped agrarian society, far from enough. Added to this is the fact that the produce from this area is much less than in most other countries from the same area. Thirdly, with population increasing by nearly three million persons every year, even this holding will dwindle if very effective measures are not continually in hand to add to the total acreage available for cultivation.

In view of this a very special emphasis has been laid on water development schemes. The Second Plan spent 18.6 per cent of its total expenditure on the water and power development; and the Third Plan has raised the amount by over 100 per cent in the public sector. Master plans were prepared both for flood control in the Eastern province, and for irrigation and reclamation work in the Western. Several schemes have been completed, and many are now in hand.

FLOODS IN EAST PAKISTAN

Floods are a major problem in Pakistan. They occur in both the wings of the country, but more devastatingly in the Eastern wing. The people of this province have lived with floods for centuries, and their economy has developed from the riverine tract of a large delta; but the predictable regularity of the floods is a recent phenomenon. There have been severe floods in 1954 and, barring short respites, almost annually ever since. The damage to crops, property and lives has been heavy. In the floods of 1954-56 the rice area damaged was $8\frac{1}{3}$ million acres, and the loss in agricultural production was almost $1\frac{3}{4}$ million

tons valued at Rs 470 million. In 1962 the damage to crops from floods was estimated to be Rs 1,100 million. About the floods of September 1966 the inventory of damage in Chittagong, the worst affected area, was as follows—

Human dead		468	
Cattle perished		43,273	
Poultry perished		85,000	
Houses damaged		48,345	
Schools damaged		569	
Crop damage:	*Paddy*	233,170	acres
	Betel leaf	3,659	acres
	Govt. foodgrains	5,595	tons
Relief in cash or kind distributed within first few days		Rs 3 million	

Recurring flood damage has had an unhappy cumulative effect on the economy of the province.

The extensive flooding in East Pakistan is due principally to the three big rivers, the Padma (Ganges), Brahmaputra and Meghna, carrying flows from outside the province which must pass through to the Bay of Bengal. In an average year about 1,070 million acre-feet of water flows in from catchments outside East Pakistan, to which is added about 100 million acre-feet of run-off from rainfall within the province. The total is equivalent to a depth of 34 feet over the whole province. Since most of this enormous volume is concentrated over the period from June to September, summer floods are the rule. The flooded area amounts on the average to 10 million acres each year.

Floods in the smaller streams drain areas of greater rainfall intensity. Therefore, flood peaks here can be proportionately larger, of shorter duration, and more destructive than in the main rivers.

Considering that there is no possibility of reducing the magnitude of flood flows by headwater storage or any similar measure (because the main rivers flow in from outside the country and East Pakistan itself has a flat terrain), flood control has mostly to concentrate on channelling these flows for quick disposal and on protection of lands against floods.

There were several expert studies made over the past years on floods in both the wings. A Flood Commission was set up for the eastern Province in 1955, along with a Flood Control Board and a flood control organization. A United Nations Mission came in 1956-57 and carried out a study into the development of the water and power resources of the province. A Flood Commission for the western wing was set up in 1957. More recently there have been further studies by high level experts into the causes and remedial measures for mitigating the recurrent flood damage in the Eastern wing. In August 1965, the East Pakistan Water and Power Development Authority prepared a master plan for water development in the province which included a flood control plan.

The problem of flood is basically due to the rivers being inade-

quate to carry the huge volume of water received during the monsoon months. The flat terrain and the presence of tides from the sea complicate the situation further. The present Flood Control Plan aims to improve the situation and provide protection to the lands which now periodically go under water by the following means.

(*a*) Lands normally inundated to be embanked against river flooding, and later, at time of short supply, provided with irrigation water, either by gravity division or pumping from rivers.

(*b*) While flood water is to be excluded by embankments, the excess of rain water accumulated within the protected zone is to be removed through drainage sluices or by pumping.

(*c*) Natural waterways to be used not only for irrigation but also, where feasible, for drainage.

(*d*) Coastal embankment projects, to protect the areas subject to inundation by tides against saline sea water as well as upland flooding. Automatic sluices with flapgates will drain inside water when the outside river level falls below the level of water within the area.

(*e*) Channel improvements (such as straightening, deepening and enlarging), for complementing embankment protection (and also to provide more favourable conditions of inland navigation, increasing hydraulic efficiency etc).

(*f*) Channel cutoffs, for lowering 'stages' upstream without increasing hazards downstream.

(*g*) Dredging structures, to combat the channel changes natural to an alluvial river.

IRRIGATION IN EAST PAKISTAN

A very opposite problem also faced by East Pakistan is that of inadequate irrigation. Although it is not as acute as it is in West Pakistan, it does affect final farm produce. The average 82 inches of rainfall is unevenly distributed, 65 inches of it occurring within four to five monsoon months. The rest of the year is more or less dry, and irrigation is needed for crops. As flood control and drainage schemes progress more land areas will be available for longer periods in the year for cultivation, and optimum cropping intensity will require deficiencies in rainfall before, during and after the monsoons to be made up through irrigation. Conditions of possible drought prevail in varying degrees for all crops, including such important crops as jute and rice in some places. Considerable areas of medium and high land now produce only one crop due to lack of moisture for planting prior to the monsoon season. High returns can be obtained from winter irrigation of such crops as sugarcane, tobacco, boro rice, potato, wheat, oilseeds, pulses and vegetables.

Soils in East Pakistan are relatively pervious and responsive to water, and excepting for small areas in the south-west there is no likelihood of waterlogging and salinity, which is, as in the Western

wing, a usual by-product of artificial irrigation. The flushing effect of the monsoon rains on the deep alluvial soils guarantees a low salt content.

Water for irrigation can be obtained from surface supplies by gravity diversion or by pumping and from sub-surface supply by pumping only. Ground water is available for irrigation in certain areas and altogether East Pakistan WAPDA's Master Plan envisages diversion of water for the irrigation of 11.2 million acres.

Major Projects

The area which now constitutes East Pakistan was neglected prior to independence and no major development was carried out in this region. The province had, therefore, to start from the bottom and begin by building up data required for preparation of major water projects simultaneously with implementation of schemes in different sectors of water development. The Second Five-Year Plan (1960-65) saw the first hydro-electric project, the first organised surface water irrigation project and also the first tube-well irrigation project started operation, while the huge Coastal Embankment Project was begun and made rapid progress during this period.

The Second Five-Year Plan provided for nearly Rs. 31¼ million for flood regulation, of which four-fifths were spent in East Pakistan. A number of schemes of dredging, resuscitation of blocked rivers, and embankment construction were completed, which included improvement of the channel and strengthening of the embankments of the Gumti river and the construction of 1,205 miles out of a total of 3,083 miles of tidal embankments to protect a gross area of 3.4 million acres, in the coastal districts of Khulna, Barisal, Noakhali and Chittagong, from inundation by saline water.

Irrigation, which till recently was confined only to the traditional method of lifting water from wells and streams, received an impetus after installation of pumps. Large-scale irrigation came to the province with the opening of the first phase of the Kushtia unit of the Ganges-Kobadak project recently. Certain factors, like small size of farms in this province, had so far hampered artificial irrigation on large-scale. However, considerable progress is being made now. The projects so far completed or to be completed in 1967 will together irrigate a total area of nearly 370,000 acres.

Some of the major water projects of East Pakistan are described below.

Ganges-Kobadak Project

Started in 1954 the Ganges-Kobadak is East Pakistan's foremost flood control and irrigation project, providing for pumping of water from the river Ganges to irrigate about 2.58 million acres. The project is divided into three separate units.

(a) *Kushtia Unit*: This part is composed of two phases, each independent of the other except for the pumping plant which is common. In addition to supplying water for irrigation and protecting the area from flood, this first

unit of the project will provide drainage facilities and afford excellent communication advantages with navigable channels and all-weather roads. The canal system with secondaries and tertiaries is complete and in operation. Efforts are being made to have a network of field and plot channels constructed by farmers in order to have economic utilisation of resources. *Particulars*:

Total commanded area	..	488,000 acres
Net irrigable area ..	..	350,000 ,,
Increased foodgrain yield expected		360,000 tons
Completion ..	..	By 1970: first phase completed; second phase 70% complete.

(*b*) *Jessore Unit*: It will serve very much the same purpose as the first unit. *Particulars* :

Total commanded area	..	1,667,000 acres
Net Irrigable area	..	1,141,000 acres

(*c*) *Khulna Unit*: In Khulna the cultivation depends almost entirely on rainfall. The need for fresh water is of great importance, not only for crops but also to wash the salt from the soil deposited by high tides during the preceding season. Formerly the area was fed by the Ganges through spill channels. With the Ganges supply having been cut off these areas are becoming more and more saline and lands are going out of cultivation. The main purpose of the Unit is to improve agricultural conditions so that at least two crops of rice per year are assured.

The total commanded area of the unit is 420,000 acres.

(*d*) *Ganges Barrage*: To provide irrigation, flood protection, drainage and reclamation, a barrage on the Ganges river is proposed near the Harding Bridge. This barrage will provide for the integration of different units of Ganges-Kobadak Project under a gravity system.

Coastal Embankment

The coastal region of the Eastern wing lies in the districts of Khulna, Bakerganj, Noakhali and Chittagong. About 6,000 square miles of this region is affected by tidal inundation and salinity, and only one rice crop is grown in these areas. Cultivators put up small dykes to protect their lands from sea water but they are poorly constructed and not maintained properly and they are frequently breached and overtopped. When the saline water enters the land not only is the standing crop damaged but the fields become unfit for cultivation for the next few years because of salt deposits. It was necessary therefore that properly designed embankments should be constructed.

The Coastal Embankment Project provides for remodelling of existing embankments, constructing new ones, providing drainage sluices and making the embankments themselves proof against storm

and wave. In addition to protecting land from sea water intrusion, the embankment will also provide a line of communication and offer opportunities of employment to a large number of people.
Particulars:

Length	3,083 miles
Number of sluices	833
Number of polders	97
Total area protected ..	3,400,000 acres
Cultivated area protected ..	2,400,000 acres
Progress	1,205 miles of construction completed, 334 sluices and 27 polders built
Area already benefited	1,200,000 acres

Brahmaputra Embankment

The first major flood embankment scheme along a big river, the Brahmaputra embankment is to stretch from Kaunia southwards along the western bank of the Jamuna upto the confluence of Hurasagar river below Sirajganj. *Particulars* :

Length	135 miles
Acreage to be protected ..	593,500 acres
Food Production increase ..	68%
Progress	30 miles of old embankment resectioned 22 miles of new embankment completed

Teesta Barrage Project

One project comprises a barrage across the Teesta river near Gaddimari and a system of canals commanding a gross area of about two million acres in Dinajpur, Rangpur and Bogra districts. The area is a vast alluvial plain of rich agricultural soil, built up by the Teesta river, but with a crop production which is extremely low and health conditions poor because of the unsatisfactory system of drainage and a flood season which extends from July to October. The main purposes of the project are to increase agricultural production by provision of flood control and irrigation measures in the area under crop and to provide for hydro power capacity. *Particulars*:

Length of the barrage	2,500 feet
Commanded area	1,850,000 acres
Value increase in annual production	Rs 338,170,000

Progress: An earthen dam across Buri Teesta river with a spillway for impounding headwater for feeding canals irrigating 33,000 acres completed.

Tipperah-Chittagong Project

A multi-purpose project covers an area of 1,750 sq. miles in the district of Comilla, Noakhali and Chittagong, with the river Meghna forming the western boundary and the river Dakatia dividing the area into three separate units. The western part is often overflowed by the river Meghna during monsoon and the oceanic tides destroy productivity of the land in the coastal region. There is no drainage for excess water during rainfall.

Chandpur Scheme: The first phase of the project is the Chandpur Scheme. Irrigation here will be done by means of several pumping stations so designed that they can pump out excess monsoon water as well. *Particulars*:

Flood protection ..	137,270 acres in the District of Comilla and Noakhali
Irrigation	110,000 acres

Dacca-Narayanganj-Demra Project

One scheme, almost completed, provides for supply of irrigation water to 18,840 acres of alluvium land located in the south-east of Dacca, most of which used to be inundated every year to a depth between 5 and 15 feet by monsoon rain. A dual purpose pumping station is to regulate the area's water supply. Excess water will be pumped out of the area during the monsoon seasons. During the rest of the year water would be pumped from Lakhya river and supplied through the irrigation canals to be constructed. These measures are expected to yield three crops per year instead of the present single crop. *Particulars*

Area to be irrigated	15,000	acres
Area to be protected from flood..	12,740	acres
Expected increase in paddy ..	4,550	tons
Further Production		
Jute	3,000	tons
Winter vegetable	3,300	tons
Wheat	710	tons
Fodder	56,700	tons

Groundwater Development and Pump Irrigation Project

The north-eastern districts of Dinajpur, Rangpur and Rajshahi consists of fairly high land and is not affected by any flood. There is often need here for supplementary water during the monsoon, and if water is provided during the dry winter months, this fertile area could produce two to three crops every year. The solution, therefore, was to draw on water reserves from below the ground surface by use of tubewells and from perennial streams by low lift pumps.

Low lift pumps installed on river banks supply water to farm lands with the object of reclaiming fallow areas which lie uncultivated for lack of water.

The project serves an area of about 186,000 acres with ground water from drilled wells and surface water obtained from streams

through the use of 380 tubewells and 860 low-lift pumps. While the project is still under completion, the productivity has already increased many times, and reports from one area alone indicate an increased yield of over 12,000 maunds on an area of 3,000 acres of good quality rice due to supplemental supply during monsoon. After completion, the total production of rice (in addition to sugarcane and other crops) will have increased by 60,000 tons.

Progress:

(*a*) 292 tubewells now serving 72,000 acres.

(*b*) 526 low-lift power pumps with distribution channels in Dinajpur, Rangpur, Bogra and Rajshahi districts *installed.*

(*c*) 362 electrically operated tubewells, out of 380 envisaged in Thakurgaon sub-division and one thana of Dinajpur *being completed*. They will irrigate 86,000 acres.

(*d*) Work on 60 electrically driven pumps with lift irrigation from Atrai river for Dinajpur district *will start shortly.*

Improvement of Old Dakatia and Little Feni River

The Little Feni Drainage Project in Comilla and Noakhali districts will improve drainage and prevent salt and water intrusion.

Area benefited by the project is 124,000 acres.

Progress:

(*a*) A regulator on this river has been completed and the river has been diverted through it.

(*b*) The comprehensive Drainage Scheme of Faridpur, flood prevention scheme in Feni sub-division, dredging of river Gumti in Comilla and improvement of Gazaria Ichamati river project are nearing completion.

(*c*) 93 small schemes have so far been completed.

Overall Progress

During 1960-65 irrigation facilities were built for 243,000 acres, out of which 130,000 acres have actually been put under irrigation. A total of 600,000 acres have been protected from flooding and 1,200,000 acres have been protected from saline water inundation in the coastal areas.

IRRIGATION IN WEST PAKISTAN

The major portion of what is now West Pakistan was practically desert some decades ago. It is through artificial irrigation works in the form of canals, constructed during the last 80 years, that much of what had been desert was turned into a very productive region.

From the irrigation point of view West Pakistan can be divided into two regions: (i) area drained by Indus Basin and its tributaries, and adjoining tracts depending on the Indus river system for their water supply, and (ii) the areas drained by coastal tributaries and desert streams comprising most of the Quetta and Kalat Divisions and their adjoining tracts.

West Pakistan has a gross area of about 199 million acres, of which the plains comprise 79 million acres. About 66 million acres of this are culturable, but only $33\frac{1}{2}$ million acres lie within the

present command of the canals, some 25 million acres receiving irrigation supplies annually.

The indus system of rivers comprises the main Indus and major tributaries, Kabul and Kurram on the right bank, and Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej on the left. The plains of the Indus Basin consist of alluvial deposits which at places are several thousand feet thick and consist of silt and sand of low permeability and some clay. Almost all the basin in Pakistan territory receives less than 15 inches of rainfall, much of it less than 10 and even 5 inches. The rainfall is not distributed evenly throughout the year but is concentrated in the monsoon period, and taking West Pakistan as a whole, rainfall is very inadequate. Barring the smaller sub-montane tract, all the province is almost entirely dependent on irrigation.

According to the First Plan, even taking into account the prospective increase in the productivity per acre, an additional 2½ to 3 million acres of land were required for cultivation upto 1966 to maintain the *existing* standard of food and clothing for the increasing population of the region. Water requirements vary with individual crops, but assuming an average rate of 3 feet of water per acre per crop, the additional requirement of water per acre for irrigating new lands or double cropping the land then producing only one crop, was 7½ to 9 million acre feet. This problem has to be met as cultivation extends.

The traditional means of irrigation in these parts have been the wells, canals, tanks and some others. The first two are the more important.

To get water out of the wells, several types of lifts are used, the most common being the Persian wheel. Oil driven pumps and tubewells (which use oil or electricity) are also coming into greater use but only on large holdings. Average area commanded by wells is about 12 acres.

Wells are better than other methods only in that these can be constructed through individual enterprise by owners of smaller areas, while canals have to be undertaken for extensive regions by the State (or by some other agency with financial resources for long term investment). With wells there is no danger of over-irrigation which creates waterlogging and salinity problems.

Methods other than canals and tanks (the latter very rare) includes the system of *karez* which is widely used in the former Baluchistan region. These are tunnels constructed by connecting shafts sunk in the great fans skirting the hills sometimes drawing upon springs but more often collecting the sub-soil water. The great advantage of this system is that loss of water by evaporation (which is one of the disadvantages of canal irrigation) is avoided. Under favourable conditions a *karez* will remain productive for long time.

The most important method of irrigation is the canal system. Canals are generally of two kinds: (i) inundation canals, and (ii) perennial or weir-controlled canals. The first take their supplies through cuts

in river banks and are dependent on the water level in the river nearby. Thus when there is no water they can serve no purpose. Perennial canals are fed through properly constructed headworks and the water levels in the rivers is controlled by constructing a weir on a barrage across the river. They assure better water supply throughout the year.

The history of canal construction in this region can be traced to mid-nineteenth century when numerous inundation canals like the upper and lower Sutlej canals, Shahpur canals, Indus canals and Desert canals were built, beginning with the Upper Bari Doab. There were, however, even earlier examples; in the time of the Moghuls, in early seventeenth century, the Hasli canal was constructed to supply water to the Shalimar Gardens at Lahore.

Extensions of canals like the Desert Sukkur and Kalri during the later half of 19th century irrigated the old Sind upto three million acres. The colonisation canals of the close 19th century brought into existence populous towns like Lyallpur in what had been a desert area. Later, canals were built to protect areas from famine. The lower Swat canal from the Swat river, Kabul river canal, Lower Sohag and Sidhnai canals system, and Rechna Doab and the Lower Chenab canals, all constructed during the last years of the 19th century, fall in this category. A big project, called Sukkur barrage, came into being after the First World War. The first barrage on the Indus river, it was meant to develop over six million acres of land in that region. This was followed by Haveli barrage and the Thal project.

Important irrigation projects undertaken after independence were the Taunsa Barrage, Ghulam Mohammad Barrage, Guddu Barrage, Kurramgarhi and Warsak Dam Multipurpose projects.

Waterlogging and Salinity

The lack of effective drainage in the Indus region has resulted in the evils of waterlogging and salinity. These have led to deterioration of soil and creation of unhealthy surroundings. According to a recent report, out of the former Punjab's 15 million acres of culturable area of the existing canal projects, the area partially damaged by salinity was 5 million acres, and the area severely damaged by it 3 million acres; in addition 1½ million acres had gone out of cultivation. The rate of annual increase in the deteriorated area is estimated to be 70,000 acres for former Punjab, and 100,000 acres for West Pakistan as a whole.*

Another earlier survey of the principal irrigated areas of the Indus Plains indicated that large areas in the Gujranwala, Sheikhupura, Lyallpur, Shahpur, Jhung, Multan, Muzaffargarh and parts of upper Khairpur were already waterlogged. In addition to this, nearly 5 million acres were severely saline, and on another 11¼ million acres, saline patches were common.**

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*Director, Land Reclamation, *Research Publication*, Vol. II, No. 9, 1963.

***Colombo Plan Survey*, 1954.

Waterlogging in this area is due to the rise in water table and is caused mainly by seepage from the canal systems in the absence of any natural or artificial sub-surface drainage. The rise in water table has resulted: firstly, in saturation of the soil (known as *sem*) with the water collecting on the surface in the worst affected areas through seepage from the canal system; secondly, in concentration of salt in the upper layers of the soil (*thur*), making it impossible for the plant roots to survive.

The remedies of waterlogging and salinity are: pumping out of water by tubewells and other methods of drainage, proofing of canals with concrete, and opening up closed and obstructed drainage. In the last 50 years different measures have been tried but they were not intensively pursued or extensively applied. The first large scale project was undertaken by WAPDA five years ago in the central Rechna Doab under which some 1,800 tubewells were installed. This marked the beginning of coordinated and intensive efforts to solve the problems.

During 1960-65, 2,100 tubewells were commissioned providing reclamation facilities to 1.34 million acres. During 1965-66, in spite of the disturbed conditions created by Indian aggression, 1,400 more tubewells were drilled, developed and tested. Electrification work is now underway.

On a directive from the President, the Water and Power Development Authority of West Pakistan prepared a ten-year Master Plan to meet the problem. About that time the late President Kennedy offered the help of a team of American experts who came to Pakistan to investigate and advise. In their report they agreed with WAPDA's reclamation programmes, recommending that the rate of reclamation should be at about one million acres per year spread over 20 to 25 years.

WAPDA's programme comprise 26 projects covering 29 million acres under the command of the irrigation system; 10 improvement schemes in the northern part of the Indus Plain and 16 projects in the southern area. The reclamation schemes of the northern zone are based primarily on utilization of tubewells for sub-soil drainage combined with drainage for the removal of sub-soil and surface water supplemented with tubewells where feasible. The programme embodies the construction of some 31,500 tubewells, 7,500 miles of major drainage channels and 25,000 miles of supplemented drains. Thousands of ancillary works such as bridges, culverts, pump houses and other miscellaneous structures are also to be set up. For power to operate tubewells and pumping plants, provision has been made for at least another 6 million kw of generating capacity in addition to the 200,000 kw already provided for reclamation under earlier Plans. Several hundred miles of high tension transmission lines and 36,000 miles of secondary distribution lines are also on the list.

Studies indicate that as a result of this programme, the crop yields will increase by as much as 100 per cent over most of the area covered. On an average the net increase in the farm income is estimated

at Rs 64 per acre in the northern zone and Rs 58 per acre in the southern.

Soil Erosion

Apart from irrigated lands, which are comparatively free, the whole of the western province suffers from wind or water erosion. In the upland districts, over 1.6 million acres have been severely eroded, and nearly 3 million acres have suffered from inundation or shifting of sands. Soil erosion implies either washing of the surface soil by flood or rain water or its being swept away by wind. The rivers may also throw a thick layer of sand over the cultivated land thus making it unfit for cultivation. Soil erosion in Pakistan is found in the deforested hillside, in the arid plateau lands and the flooded parts of river valleys. Soil erosion is also common on the wind side of the hills in Baluchistan area. According to one investigation some years ago, in certain upland districts of West Pakistan—Rawalpindi, Campbellpur, Gujrat, Mianwali, Shahpur and Jhelum—which constitute over half the total area under cultivation in the province, as much as 1¾ million acres were badly affected by soil erosion. According to the Second Plan, over 106 million acres of the province were sufferingfrom it in varying degrees. The first major step was taken in 1954 when a three year pilot project was started. Four years later the scheme was further expanded to include 15 more areas. The Second Plan provided for a further coverage of 120,000 acres. The work included soil, agronomic, range, forestry, engineering and other surveys and land capability classifications; preparation of sub-catchment working plans and field application; construction of broad-based level terraces, diversion and bench terraces; water spreading device and contour tillage; development of water disposal systems, ponds, waterways and agronomic and cultural conservation formalities. A sum of Rs. 16 million was provided for this.

Development of Water Resources

The developments undertaken in the province in the water sector fall into two categories, one for the Indus Basin and the other for coastal tributaries and desert streams region because of the varying nature of their pressing needs. For the first the following types of projects have been undertaken.

(*a*) Multipurpose projects;
(*b*) The inter-linking of the Chenab, Ravi and Sutlej rivers to increase flexibility of the irrigation system and the supplies available for the Sutlej valley canal;
(*c*) Projects to arrest the progressive deterioration of soils due to salinity and the rising water table;
(*d*) Schemes for the regulation of supplies to the inundation canals for the protection of existing irrigation; and
(*e*) Extension of irrigation to new areas.

For the coastal region, the following:

(*a*) Storage reservoirs.
(*b*) Diversion dams and weirs; and
(*c*) Minor irrigation schemes.

Ghulam Mohammad Barrage

The Ghulam Mohammad Barrage was, after the Sukkur Barrage built in the thirties, the second barrage across Indus. It is 2,934 feet. long and is situated four miles above Kotri in the southern part of the former Sind region. There are four main canals, one on the right and three on the left. The total area it commands is 2.8 million acres, of which 1.7 million were irrigated for the first time. The project was completed in 1961.

Gudu Barrage

After the Sukkur Barrage and the G.M. Barrage, the Indus was harnessed again in the sixties to irrigate more barren and fallow land.

The Gudu Barrage was first conceived in 1940, after the heavy withdrawals of river waters in the upper riparian areas had started adversely affecting the supplies in the inundation canals in the lower Indus plain. The lowered levels of the Indus at critical periods of sowing and maturing of the crops reached such low limits that in spite of re-grouping and regrading of the inundation canals it became increasingly difficult to maintain the former level of production in the affected areas. The Bakra dam in East Punjab (in India) further endangered the cultivation dependent upon the inundation canals on the Indus. To offset the effects of these heavy withdrawals, two barrages were proposed, one at Kotri and the other at Gudu. The Kotri barrage was completed in 1955 but the Gudu scheme remained in abeyance for various reasons until late 1958.

Completed in four years, the Gudu Barrage has been a most difficult project. It was designed to hold in harness the nine-mile span of the mighty Indus so as to force it to pass through a narrow-gated passage of about three quarters of a mile. Doubts were expressed about its possibility and construction firms of repute were not prepared to guarantee completion of the barrage in such a short time.

The Barrage proper has a total length of 4,445 feet and is capable of passing a peak flood of 1.2 million cusecs. It has 64 spans of 60 feet each, one 50 feet navigational lock and two long divide walls with a fish ladder in each. The 22-feet wide road bridge over the barrage has reduced the road distance between Lahore and Quetta. The distance between Rahimyar Khan and Kashmore has been reduced to less than half.

The Barrage commands 3.2 million acres, of which about 2.7 million acres lie in the Sukkur and Jacobabad districts of Khairpur Division and the rest in the Kalat Division. Of this the total culturable area is estimated to be 2.7 million acres, including 225,000 acres of forests.

The area under rice cultivation is eventually expected to increase from 270,000 to 854,000; under dry *kharif* from 263,000 to 400,000 acres. On full development by 1976, the food production in the region is expected to rise by half a million tons, which,

at current prices, will mean an addition of Rs 200 million to the annual national income.

Warsak Dam

Geographically and hydrologically the position of the River Kabul near a village called Warsak was considered ideal for the building of a dam. The survey was completed by 1950 but the work was started six years later and completed in 1961, with major assistance from the Canadian Government under the Colombo Plan.

This project supplies water for irrigation to about 120,000 acres of wasteland and provides power to the extent of 240,000 kw for large areas of the province. The measurement of the Dam is: length, 760 feet, height, 250 feet, base 211 feet, and top width 48 feet. It has created a lake or reservoir of an average width of 1,000 feet upto the border of Afghanistan, about 26 miles from Warsak.

The project has contributed a great deal to the well being of tribesmen in the area.

Kurram Garhi Multipurpose Project

The Kurram Garhi project, completed in 1962, comprised the construction of a diversion weir on the Kurram River, a head regulator and feeder channel, the remodelling of old channels, and the construction of additional channels for giving regulated supplies to 107,000 acres of old area and 150,000 acres of new areas. New areas brought under irrigation produces 60,000 tons of additional foodgrain and several thousand tons of a variety of agricultural commodities.

Taunsa Barrage

The Taunsa Barrage consists of one mile long barrage across the Indus at Taunsa and two main canals, one each on either side of the river. It provides weir supplies to 1.7 million acres of land in Muzzafargarh and Dera Ghazi Khan districts which had been dependent normally on inundated supplies. It has brought under cultivation an additional area of 10,500 acres of land in the former district and 43,000 acres in the latter.

The Barrage, with its super-structure and a highway railroad bridge, was completed in December 1957; the river had been successfully diverted through the Barrage four years earlier. Work on the distribution system of the Barrage is now nearing completion.

Rawal Dam

The old water supply system of Rawalpindi town was designed some 60 years ago and therefore could not meet the growing requirements of the fast expanding population. This led to the conception in early 1959 of the Rawal Dam Project in the Federal Capital area of Islamabad near Rawalpindi. The Project was completed by WAPDA.

Built across the Korang river nine miles from Rawalpindi, the dam is 700 feet long and 100 feet high from the river bed, and has a storage capacity of 47,500 acre-feet. It has 16 miles of irrigation channels to irrigate about 7,500 crop acres in and around Rawalpindi.

At present the Dam supplies three million gallons of filtered drinking water every day to the Rawalpindi area. A new filtration plant will raise the supply to 14 million gallons for both Rawalpindi and the Federal Capital. In addition, work on laying a special duct for the supply of 28 million gallons a day has been taken in hand by the municipality and the Military Engineering Service.

Irrigation supplies are released from the dam through the newly constructed channels.

This project has also created a three square mile artificial lake which can develop into a tourist resort.

Tanda Dam

The Tanda Dam is situated near Kohat. It is 115 feet high, and the reservoir provides irrigation facilities to about 32,000 acres of land. The dam was completed by WAPDA at a cost of Rs 45 million.

Gomal Dam

The Gomal Dam is to be built in the Gomal Pass in South Waziristan, about 44 miles south-west of Tank, which is 42 miles west of the city of Dera Ismail Khan. The Gomal Pass is a tribal area inhabited by the Mahsud and the Wazir tribesmen.

According to the plan the Gomal Dam, or more correctly, Gomal Dam Project, will consist of a 500 feet high dam at Khajuri Kachh which will create a reservoir of 2½ million acre feet. It will impound the entire waters of Gomal river and its tributaries, the Zhob and Wana Toi. The reservoirs so created would be more than four times the average annual flow of the Gomal. It will thus become possible to store the surplus waters of wet years and use it during dry years. As such there is a reasonable assurance of a steady flow over a number of years in spite of the great quantities of silt carried by the Gomal.

The water would be sufficient to provide adequate irrigation facilites to about 100,000 acres of land in D.I. Khan district, mainly in Kulachi tehsil. Investigations have revealed that good quality land is available and the agricultural production can be enormously increased if proper cultivation practices are adopted after irrigation water is available.

The Dam will have a firm power generating capacity of 83,000 kw, and a peak-load of 127,000 kw.

In addition to these the project will help in the conservation of top soil which is being eroded away at an accelerated rate every year.

Khanpur Dam

The Khanpur Dam is designed to harness the flood flows of River Haro by constructing an earthen dam across the river near Khanpur village. The reservoir created will have a storage capacity of 59,000 acre feet and will supply irrigation water to about 113,000 acres annually.

Karachi Irrigation Project

The Karachi Irrigation Project envisages the construction of an earth filled dam 146 feet high and 22,900 feet long across the River Hub for the irrigation of 8,400 crop acres annually in the vicinity of Karachi.

Small Dams

A scheme has been underway for building a chain of about 300 small dams in the dry sub-montane areas of Rawalpindi, Peshawar, Sargodha and Dera Ismail Khan Divisions. After completion these dams will irrigate over 100,000 acres, and produce more than 100,000 tons of food and fish. The cost estimate is Rs 50 million. A Small Dams Organisation, attached to the Agricultural Development Corporation, has been in charge of this.

So far nine dams have been constructed: in Misriot, Sipiela, Auza, Curat, Khal Bhengo, Mana, Ziarat, Mansehra and Bajala. The plan is to put up 60 dams in the *barani* (rain-fed) areas during the next five years, at the rate of nine per year.

One purpose of the small dams is to provide water to the barren lands in the *barani* areas and to preserve water for use in the dry season.

INDUS WATERS TREATY

The Dispute with India

At the time of independence, irrigation from the Indus System of Rivers was already highly developed; all the available flow supplies had been allocated to the various states and provinces. The principle of International Law, requiring that co-riparians on international rivers must respect one another's established uses and must divide any surplus remaining in accordance with the rule of 'equitable apportionment', had been recognised by all concerned. It was also reflected in the award of the Punjab Boundary Commission given by Sir Cyril Radcliffe. In this he had stated: "I think that I am entitled to assume with confidence that any agreement.. as to the sharing of waters from these canals or otherwise will be respected by whatever Government hereafter assumes jurisdiction over the headworks concerned." An Arbitral Tribunal was set up to settle disputes arising out of partition a Partition Committee having been set up to determine what questions were in dispute. The water dispute was not referred to the Arbitral Tribunal because there was then no dispute. However, on Ist April, 1948, the day after the Arbitral Tribunal ceased to exist, India, taking advantage of its physical control over the headworks at Madhopur on the Ravi and at Ferozepore on the Sutlej, cut off the supplies in every canal that crossed from India into Pakistan. This started a long drawn out dispute between the two countries on the division of the waters of the Indus System. The matter was very serious because the whole of the agricultural economy of West Pakistan depended upon the waters of this System. Without it, there would be no West Pakistan. By stopping the supplies to the Pakistani canals, India wanted to establish its ownership of the waters of the common rivers. The Canal System from which India withheld supplies during the critical spring sowing period irrigated more than 1.6 million acres in West Pakistan. This sudden action of India rendered the position so precarious that Pakistan was compelled to resort to a quick interim solution for the restoration of the withheld supplies. Hurried representations and consultations resulted in the issue of the joint statement on 4th May, 1948, whereby East Punjab (India) agreed to let down the supplies.

In May 1950, India took the extraordinary step of registering this joint statement as a Treaty with the Secretary-General of the United Nations. Pakistan filed a certificate with the Secretary-General to the effect that the joint statement was surely an interim practical arrangement which she had accepted under duress to avoid starvation, and so it could not prejudice her legal rights. From that time India started to claim sole ownership of the waters of the three eastern rivers, namely, the Ravi, the Beas and the Sutlej. In 1952 the World Bank took the initiative and offered its good offices to solve the dispute.

After long negotiations the Indus Waters Treaty was signed in September, 1960, and was ratified by the Government of India and the Government of Pakistan in January 1961.

The Agreement

According to the Indus Waters Treaty of 1960, the waters of the three eastern rivers were allocated for the exclusive use of India. The waters of the western rivers were, except for certain insignificant uses in India and the State of Jammu and Kashmir, allocated for the exclusive use of Pakistan. However, during a transitional period, which would normally end on 31st March 1970, but could be, at Pakistan's request, extended upto 31st March 1973, India was to continue to deliver supplies to the Pakistani canals which were dependent upon the waters of the eastern rivers.

During the transition period, Pakistan was required to construct and bring into operation from the western rivers and other sources, a system of works which would replace the supplies of the eastern rivers to the irrigation canals in Pakistan. So that after the completion of these replacement works built entirely in Pakistan, Pakistan would be independent of the waters of the eastern rivers.

India is to pay a part of the costs of the replacement works. A major portion of the expenditure will be met by other friendly countries through the World Bank. An agreement, namely the Indus Basin Development Fund Agreement, was signed in September 1960 by the contributing countries, Pakistan and the World Bank.

Implementation

The Treaty requires both India and Pakistan to appoint a Commissioner for Indus Waters for the implementation of the Treaty. The functions of the Pakistan Commissioner for Indus Waters, as representative of the Government of Pakistan are:

(*a*) To furnish to or exchange with India information and data provided for in the Treaty.

(*b*) To give notice to India or respond to any notice received from India as provided for in the Treaty.

(*c*) To see that the supplies delivered by India from the three Eastern Rivers are in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty and to prepare water accounts, and take up with the Indian Commissioner matters concerning the supplies delivered to Pakistan.

(*d*) To see that the obligations undertaken by the two countries

under the Treaty are fulfilled.

(*e*) As a member of the Permanent Indus Commission, to perform the functions enjoined on the Commission under the Treaty, which include periodical meetings, tours of inspection, settlement of questions concerning the interpretation or application of the Treaty, etc.

The Treaty has also created a Commission called the Permanent Indus Commission. The Commission comprises the Pakistan and the Indian Commissioners for Indus Waters. The functions of the Commission are to establish and maintain co-operative arrangements for the implementation of the Treaty, to promote cooperation between the Parties in the development of the waters of the rivers and, in particular—

(*a*) to study and report to the two Governments on any problem relating to the development of the waters of the rivers which may be jointly referred to the Commission by the two Governments; in the event that a reference is made by one Government alone, the Commissioner of the other Government shall obtain the authorisation of his Government before he proceeds to act on the reference;

(*b*) to make every effort to settle promptly, in accordance with the provisions laid down, any question arising thereunder;

(*c*) to undertake, once in every five years, a general tour of inspection of the rivers for ascertaining the facts connected with various developments and works on them ;

(*d*) to undertake promptly, at the request of either Commissioner, a tour of inspection of such works or sites as may be considered necessary by him for ascertaining the facts connected with those works or sites; and

(*e*) to take, during the Transition Period, such steps as may be necessary for the implementation of the provisions.

The Commission has to meet regularly at least once a year, alternately in India and Pakistan, and has also to meet when requested by either Commissioner.

Upto 31st October, 1966, the Commission had held in all 21 meetings and had undertaken 25 tours of inspection.

Breaches of the Treaty by India

During September, 1965, India, after its attack on West Pakistan, started reducing the supplies delivered by it at Ferozepore for the use of Pakistan's Sutlej Valley canals. Serious shortages were being inflicted on the canal upto early January 1966.

India also failed to commence delivering supplies to Pakistan's Central Bari Doab Channels which, during the period 21st September to 10th April each year, are to receive Ravi waters through India's Upper Bari Doab Canal. The deliveries were ultimately resumed on

31st January, 1966.

A protest was lodged with the Government of India and a number of notes were exchanged between the two Governments. Pakistan has since referred the matter to the Permanent Indus Commission for action under Article IX(1) of the Indus Waters Treaty which provides that:

> Any question which arises between the Parties concerning the interpretation or application of this Treaty or the existence of any fact which, if established, might constitute a breach of this Treaty shall first be examined by the Commission, which will endeavour to resolve the question by agreement.

Replacement Works

The replacement work under the Indus Basin is being executed by the West Pakistan Water and Power Development Authority as agent to the Government of Pakistan. The work comprises the construction of the following: two dams, over the River Jhelum and the River Indus; eight interlink canals; five barrages; one gated syphon; and remodelling of three existing link canals, two existing headworks and some existing irrigation canal systems affected by the new construction.

Dam Over Jhelum (Mangla Dam)

The dam over the River Jhelum is located at a place called Mangla, and one mile upstream of the present regulator of the Upper Jhelum Canal. It is a multipurpose project designed to conserve and control the flood waters of River Jhelum for the purpose of replacement as envisaged in the Indus Basin Settlement Plan. It will have a line storage of 5.4 million acre feet. The waters stored in the reservoir, equal to Malta in area, will be released both for irrigation and the initial generation of 340,000 kw of cheap hydel power, which is twice the capacity of the Warsak project. Ultimately the dam will be able to impound enough water to produce three million kw of power and to irrigate 6 to 8 million acres of land which previously received water from the eastern rivers given over to India.

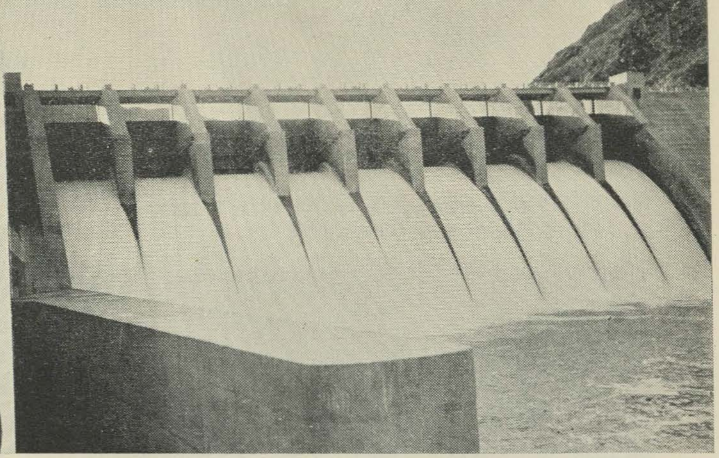
The main dam will be a rolled earth-filled embankment with a crest length of approximately 11,000 feet. Its height above the river bed will be 380 feet. When completed, it will be one of the largest earth-filled dams in the world with a total fill of 80 million cubic yards.

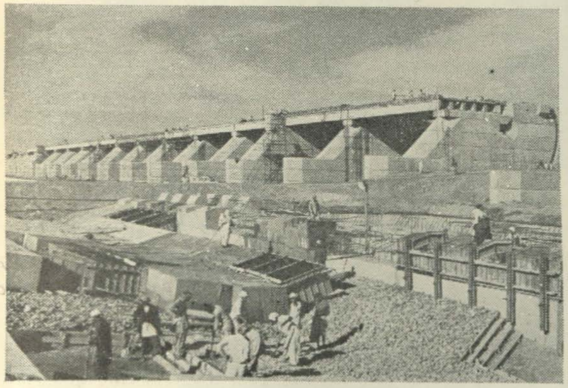
The construction work on the project was started in May, 1962. By August, 1966, about 80 per cent of it was completed and the remaining is expected to be finished by July 1967—one year ahead of schedule. More than 10,000 persons, including 2,000 engineers, have been engaged on the job, which is the largest labour force put on any single project.

Upto August 1966 over Rs 2,100 million had been spent including Rs 200 million paid as compensation to the affected persons and Rs 50 million spent on the construction of the New Mirpur Town and the hamlets around the periphery of Mangla reservoir.

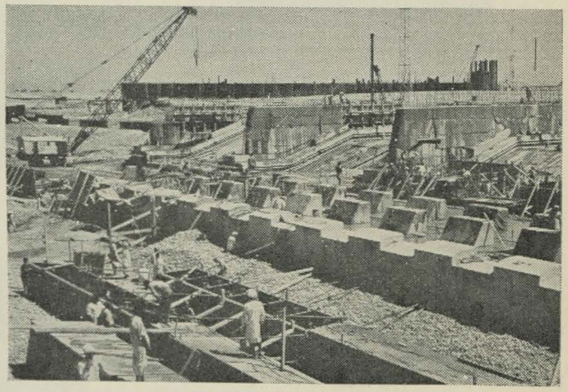


President Mohammad Ayub Khan switching the Hydro-Electric Generator of the Warsak Dam (January 27, 1961).

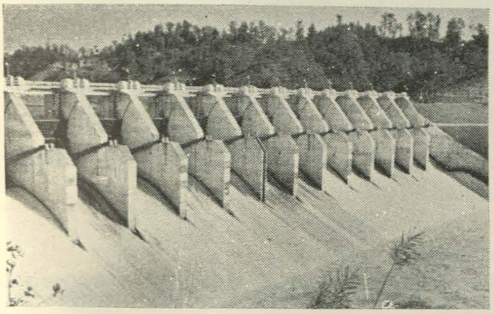




A view of the Qadirabad barrage being built on the Chenab river as part of the Indus Basin projects. The barrage is 3,373 feet long and can pass a flood of 900,000 cusecs.

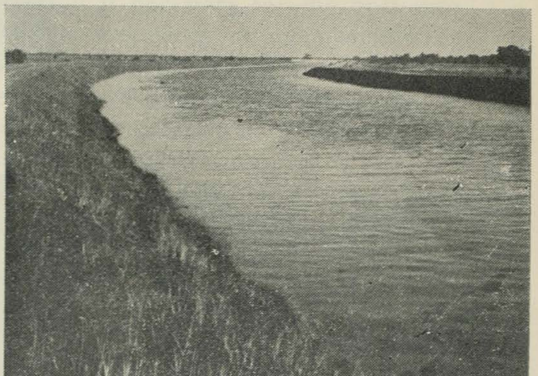


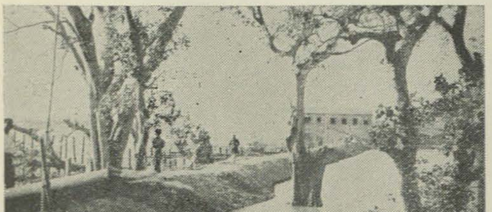
A view of the Marala barrage being built by WAPDA as part of the Indus Basin Project; 4,472 feet long and with a flood discharge capacity of 1,100,000 cusecs, it is the longest barrage of the Indus Basin projects.



Spillway of the Karnaphuli Multi-purpose Project at Kaptai, East Pakistan.

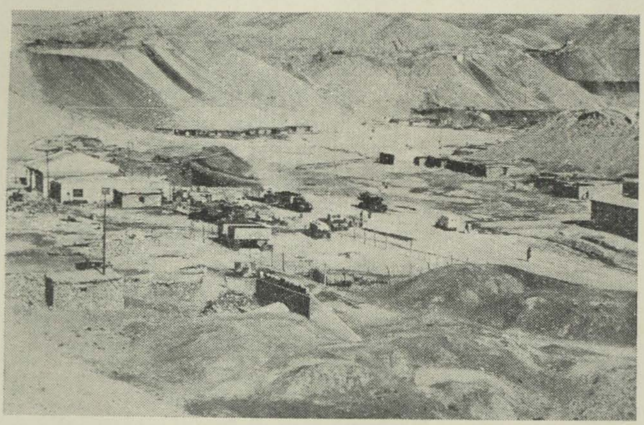
The main canal of Ganges-Kobadak Project in East Pakistan.





A waterway is being dredged; the silt will be used to fill up the low-lying bank for building a jetty for coastal ships near Dacca.

A general view of the WPIDC's collieries at Degari near Quetta.



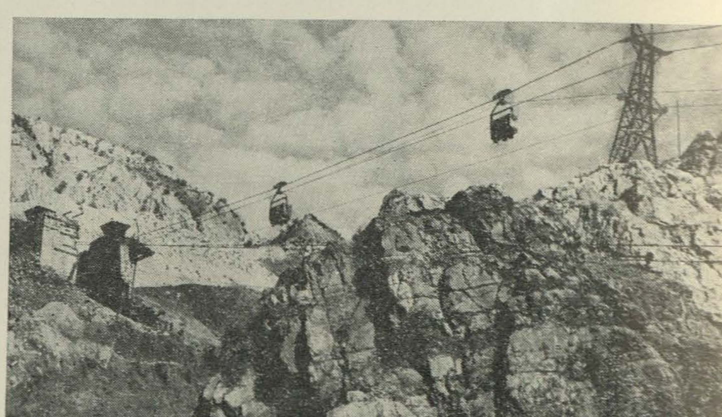


Cutting the coal in deep inclines at WPIDC's coal mines at Makerwal.

Coal miners coming out of the central tunnel of WPIDC's collieries at Sor Range.



Aerial ropeway haulage of coal at Makerwal collieries of WPIDC.



Mangla Watershed Management Project

In spite of its large capacity, the Mangla reservoir cannot last for ever. Due to the sediment brought down by the river it will lose its capacity at the rate of 42,000 acre feet per year. The estimated life of the storage at this rate of siltation is not expected to be more than 120 years. It is of utmost importance that the life of this big multipurpose project be prolonged as much as possible. Mechanical removal of silt being impracticable, the only alternative is to check the silt at source through silt trap dams and through some elaborate means of watershed management in the river catchment. Accordingly, in 1961, a 30-year programme was framed to achieve this objective.

During the first five years, a 'Pilot Phase' was organized for demonstration and training of personnel. Field Operations include construction of engineering structures such as check dams, drop spillways, bedwalls, spurs, etc for gulley and erosion control. Afforestation is done to provide soil cover against erosion and to improve absorption of rainfall; improved agronomy and soil conservation measures will prevent soil and land loss.

Dam Over Indus (Tarbela Dam)

The dam over the River Indus is to be built at a place called Tarbela, 32 miles upstream of Attock. It will be one of the largest dams in the world.

As now envisaged the project will consist of a 445 feet high rock-fill embankment dam with a gross capacity of 11.1 million acre-feet and the installation of 8 power units, each of 175,000 kw capacity. The generating capacity will be increased ultimately to 2.1 million kw.

It is a key multipurpose project in the Settlement Plan, and the replacement of waters would not be adequate if it were not built. The basic purpose is to create a storage reservoir for releasing supplies, partially to make good the loss of waters on account of the division of rivers between India and Pakistan and to supplement the dry season run-off river flows for down-stream irrigation.

As the Indus is the only river in West Pakistan with sizeable surplus flows, its complete regulation is necessary for the optimum development of West Pakistan water resources. A most significant feature of the dam at Tarbela will be its role as a diversion structure for the off-channel storage reservoirs in the Haro and Soan basins. It is estimated that the dam will enable the creation of an ultimate off-channel storage capacity of about 40 million acre-feet.

The work is now scheduled to begin in 1967. In the meantime preliminaries are going on. Exploratory works have been done, rail access from Lawrencepur to Tarbela is under construction, and transmission lines from the main grid to the project site have been completed.

Barrages Project

The barrages project consists of five new barrages at Chasma (Indus), Rasul (Jhelum), Qadirabad and Marala (Chenab), and Sidhnai (Ravi), and a gated syphon near Mailsi (Sutlej). These barrages are designed to divert the waters of the western Rivers Indus, Jhelum and

Chenab into the eastern Rivers Ravi and Sutlej through the link canals off-taking from these barrages.

The combined length of the five barrages and the Mailsi Syphon is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, which is about half of the total length of all existing weirs and barrages in West Pakistan. The total flood discharge capacity of these six structures is about 4.4 million cusecs. The works included in the Barrages Project will provide for an aggregate diversion of about 100,000 cusecs of water into the link canals off-taking from these works.

Sidhnai Barrage

The new Sidhnai Barrage has been constructed on the river Ravi about six miles upstream of the existing weir. Completed in 1965 and now in operation, it is 712 feet long with a flood discharge capacity of 167,000 cusecs, including 17,000 cusecs through the existing spill channel. This Barrage will divert the flows received through the Trimmu-Sidhnai Link into the Sidhnai-Mailsi Link and the existing Sidhnai Canal.

Mailsi Syphon

A gated syphon was constructed in 1965 on the River Sutlej near Mailsi about 25 miles downstream of the existing Islam weir. This syphon is to convey the supplies brought from Sidhnai Barrage through the Sidhnai-Mailsi Link Canal across the Sutlej for use in the Bahawal Canal system.

Rasul Barrage

Rasul Barrage is being constructed on the River Jhelum, about two and half miles downstream of the existing Rasul weir. It will divert Jhelum supplies, including releases from Mangla reservoir into the Rasul-Qadirabad Link Canal for ultimate supply to the existing Suleimanki Barrage on the River Sutlej. Its total length will be 3,209 feet with a flood discharge capacity of 850,000 cusecs. Upto the end of August 1966, its construction was about 40 per cent complete.

Qadirabad Barrage

Located about 20 miles downstream of the existing Khanki weir on the River Chenab, the Qadirabad Barrage will divert the supplies received from the river as well as the water conveyed by the Rasul-Qadirabad Link into the new Qadirabad-Balloki Link. Its total length will be 3,373 feet with a flood discharge capacity of 900,000 cusecs. By August 1966, it was 80 per cent complete.

Marala Barrage

The Marala-Ravi Link was constructed in 1956 but after a few years of its commissioning, it developed a serious problem of sedimentation. In order to make both the headworks and the link canal capable of coping with the increased sedimentation it was proposed to remodel them. This idea was later given up and investigations were carried out so as to ascertain the possibility of constructing a new barrage downstream of the existing weir. The proposal was found economically and technically more feasible than remodelling the existing weir. It was therefore decided to build a new barrage about 1,100 feet down-

stream of the existing Marala weir.

This barrage is the largest to be constructed under the Indus Basin Project. Its total length is 4,472 feet with a flood discharge capacity of 1.1 million cusecs. The new barrage will raise the pond level at Marala by four feet and will considerably reduce the silt entry into the Marala-Ravi link and Upper Chenab Canal. By August 1966, it was 30 per cent complete.

Chasma Barrage

The Chasma Barrage scheduled to be started in early 1967 and completed by March 1971, will be located on the River Indus, some 40 miles downstream of the existing Jinnah Barrage at Kalabagh. Its planned length is approximately 4,200 feet with a flood discharge capacity of 1,000,000 cusecs. Supplies from the river Indus including releases from Tarbela reservoir will be diverted by Chasma Barrage into the new Chasma-Jhelum Link for ultimate use in the areas to be served by the Trimmu-Sidhnai-Mailsi-Bahawal link system and the existing Haveli and Rangpur canals.

Link Canals Project

The primary object of the link canals is to replace the waters of the Eastern Rivers with supplies from the Indus, the Jhelum and the Chenab rivers.

The total length of these link canals is 386 miles. Their construction required excavation of some 345 million cubic yards of earthwork which is almost four times the estimated amount of earthwork required for the main dam at Mangla. The link canals will have discharge capacities varying from 3,900 cusecs to 21,700 cusecs. The aggregate discharge capacity of all the eight new link canals flowing at the same time is in excess of 100,000 cusecs.

The excavation, the eight new link canals also require the construction of several hundred structures and the land to be occupied by them will be over 35,000 acres.

Trimmu-Sidhnai, Sidhnai-Mailsi, Mailsi-Bahawal Links

The southern-most link system, completed in 1965 and in operation since then, comprises the Trimmu-Sidhnai, Sidhnai-Mailsi and Mailsi-Bahawal link canals. This system of canals is meant to transfer waters from the Trimmu Barrage to the lands originally receiving supplies from the Ravi and the Sutlej rivers. It will also feed the existing Bahawal Canal through the Mailsi syphon.

Rasul-Qadirabad, Qadirabad-Balloki, Balloki-Suleimanki II Links

The northern-most canal system, now half complete and due for commission in March 1968, comprises the Rasul-Qadirabad, Qadirabad-Balloki and Balloki-Suleimanki II Links. This system will carry water from the Jhelum, including releases from the Mangla Dam from the new Rasul Barrage across the Chenab at Qadirabad, to the Ravi at Balloki and on to the Sutlej upstream of Suleimanki. This new canal system will operate in conjunction with the existing but remodelled Marala-Ravi, Bombanwala-Ravi-Bedian-Dipalpur and Balloki-Suleimanki I Link canals.

Chasma-Jhelum and Taunsa-Panjnad Links

Two other links are the Chasma-Jhelum and Taunsa-Panjnad Link Canals. The first to be started in early 1967 and completed in March, 1971, will carry surplus flows from the Indus, including releases from the storage at Tarbela, from a new barrage to be built at Chasma to the Jhelum upstream of the Trimmu Barrage, for ultimate use in the Eastern River areas through the Trimmu-Sidhnai-Mailsi-Bahawal Link. The second now in hand, and due for completion in 1969, will transfer water of the Indus from the existing Taunsa Barrage to the Chenab upstream of the Panjnad headworks for use by the existing Panjnad canals.

Remodelling of Existing Links and Canal Systems

The Remodelling Organization entrusted with the task of remodelling some of the existing headworks, links and canal systems, is working on Marala-Ravi, Balloki-Suleimanki I, and Bombanwala-Ravi-Bedian-Dipalpur Link Canals, Dipalpur Canal, Pakpattan canal, Mailsi Canal and Balloki and Trimmu Headworks. Work is also going on at the Pakpattan-Islam Link and on the remodelling of Lower Chenab canal system.

POWER

At the time of independence in 1947 the total installed generating capacity in Pakistan was 110,400 kw. Of this 76,400 kw belonged to different supply undertakings and the balance 34,000 kw to private industrial establishments. The generating capacity of public utilities comprised 10,700 kw hydro-electric plants, 35,500 kw steam electric plants and 30,200 kw diesel electric plants. East Pakistan's share of this capacity was 7,600 kw and that of West Pakistan 68,800 kw. Most of the thermal plants inherited were small and inefficient and run by costly imported fuels.

The first assessment of power needs made in December, 1947 fixed a target of 500,000 kw, one-fifth of it for East Pakistan and the rest for West Pakistan. Later, however, the target for 1955 was brought down to less than half of this, although actually by 1955 the installed generating capacity exceeded 340,000 kw. Within the next five years it nearly trebled, overtaking the 910,000 kw mark. The per capita consumption of energy doubled itself over this period, from 11 units in 1955 to 22 units in 1960.

Continuing its progress, the capacity in service by the end of the Second Plan period (1965) was a little under 1½ million kw, of which one-fifth belonged to private industrial establishments.

EAST PAKISTAN

The progress in East Pakistan, from a mere 7,600 kw to over 27 times that figure in 18 years has been due mainly to large-scale projects: such as the Karnaphuli Hydro-electric Project at Kaptai (80,000 kw), Sidhirganj Steam (30,000 kw) and Diesel (18,000 kw) Projects, Chittagong Diesel Project (10,000 kw), Goalpara Steam (16,000 kw) and Diesel (9,747 kw) Stations, the Bheramara Thermal

Station (8,000 kw), and the Thakurgaon Project (7,500 kw).

Transmission and distribution was taken first from urban to suburban areas, and now it is being spread to remote villages. During 1960 to 1965 the length of distribution lines increased by 1,900 miles. Now a network of 2,300 miles of transmission and distribution lines carrying power from generating stations to important demand centres throughout the province is in service. Further work includes: construction of 570 miles of 33 kv lines, and 1,600 miles of kv and 400 volts line, fifteen 33 volt and 11 kv transmission lines. One project recently completed (1962) is the Sidhirganj-Kaptai inter-connector (170 miles: 132,00 kv) to transmit hydel power from Kaptai to Dacca.

The number of consumers stood at 104,000 at the end of June 1965. In 1960 the figure was exactly one-third of this. Per capita consumption in 1965 was 15 units (against 0.4 units in 1947).

By the end of the Second Plan in mid-1965, the East Pakistan Water and Power Development Authority had completed fourteen projects, both for generation and transmission of power. There are now more than a dozen other major schemes in hand which will mostly be completed during the current Plan. This Plan envisages a substantial increase in the generating capacity, mainly of the thermal type. There will be addition of one more unit to the Karnaphuli hydro-electric plant. A nuclear power plant at Rooppur of 140,000 kw is also to be installed.

Keeping in view the expanding needs of industrial centres like Dacca and Chittagong, a 60,000 kw thermal generating station is to be built at Chittagong, while the 110,000 kw Ghorashal station will serve the Dacca region. The third unit at Karnaphuli (40,000 kw), the extension of Sidhirganj plant (by 50,000 kw) and the completed Ashuganj station (120,000 kw) will also increase the supply to the same area. There will also be a plant at Khulna. A gas turbine power station of 96,000 kw is under construction at Shalji bazar in Sylhet district.

The new and old projects are expected to increase generating capacity from 300,000 kw to about 830,000 kw by mid-1970.

On the transmission side, the two grid systems will be unified by 1970 through the interconnection of the eastern and western network across the Brahmaputra. Around Dacca and Chittagong there will be 132 kv rings to provide reliable supplies to these cities. Another transmission line (132 kv) will connect Ghorasal-Mymensingh and Sylhet-Mymensingh in the east. A same strength line will be extended from Ishurdi to Saidpur and on to Thakurgaun. An extensive network of lower voltage lines is being extended to these main transmission lines stretching over a total distance of about 3,500 miles.

Schemes of rural electrification are under way. About 1,500 villages will be electrified during 1965-70. As a result of all these projects the Third Plan expenditure on power development in East Pakistan will be nearly four times that of the Second Plan: Rs. 1,450

million against Rs. 370 million.

The position of some of the power projects in hand is as follows:

Sidhirganj Project

The 50,000 kw thermal plant at Sidhirganj is expected to be completed during 1967. U.S. AID is financing the foreign exchange cost of this project.

Ghorashal Power Station

The 110,000 kw thermal power station at Ghorashal in Dacca is to be completed by 1969. The plant has been provided technical assistance by the Soviet Government under an agreement signed in April 1965.

Karnaphuli Project

The third unit of Karnaphuli project, which is being partially assisted by the US Government is to be completed by 1967.

Ashurganj Thermal Plant

Construction of the 1.2 million kw thermal plant at Ashurganj has recently been started. The first unit is expected to be in operation by 1969 and the second by March 1970.

Emergency Power Generation Scheme

The emergency power generation scheme for the installation of gas turbine units with an aggregate capacity of 37,000 kw is in hand. About 13,000 kw capacity is being installed on the east of Brahmaputra river and the other 24,000 kw on the west of it at Khulna.

Gas Turbine Power Station

A 96,000 kw gas turbine power station is being set up at Shahji Bazar in the district of Sylhet. It is expected to be commissioned by mid 1968.

Transmission Projects

The Goalpara-Behramara-Ishurdi inter-connector is progressing with Canadian assistance. Another Canadian aid project is the 152 mile 132 kv Sidhirganj-Sylhet inter-connector. A third project is the Sidhirganj-Ishurdi inter-connector of 230 kv. The Saidpur-Thakargaon 132 kv inter-connector is nearing completion.

WEST PAKISTAN

For the purpose of power generation and supply, the western province is divided into two zones, northern and southern. The northern zone comprises the areas of former Punjab, North West Frontier and Bahawalpur, all joined in a grid. Connected to the grid are: the hydel stations at Warsak, Malakand, Dargai, Kurram Garhi, Rasool, Shadiwal, Chachokimallian, Gujranwala and Renala; the steam stations at Lyallpur, Montgomery and Multan; and the diesel station at Lyallpur.

The southern zone comprises the areas of upper Sind and Quetta and Kalat.

The province has a large amount of undeveloped hydro-electric power potential in the northern foothills and mountains and large reserves of natural gas in the southern plains which are suitable for economical thermal power generation.

Both these zones, excluding Karachi, are supplied electricity by the West Pakistan Water and Power Development Authority. (In Karachi the supply is made by a Corporation in which Government has a controlling interest). In all, Water and Power Development Authority supplies about 75 per cent of the electricity consumed in West Pakistan, the Karachi Electric Supply Corporation 18 per cent and the remaining comes from private independent companies in Rawalpindi and Multan and by isolated stations of WAPDA, such as in Quetta.

Resources

According to a survey of West Pakistan power resources, it is estimated that the Indus river and its principal tributaries can yield hydro-electric power of about 30 million kw. In addition, there is substantial hydel potential of the Jhelum river and its tributaries. Some projects for developing power potential in the province are as follows:

	Kilowatts
Tarbela	2,100,000
Panjar	1,500,000
Skardu	1,400,000
Dhok Pathan	1,250,000
Kalabagh	1,200,000
Kunhar	1,000,000
Mangla	1,000,000
Mundar	800,000
Makhad	700,000
Kalangai	700,000
Khanpur	600,000
Chasma	500,000
Khazana	300,000
Gomal River	130,000

If fuel costs remain high, development of this hydel potential will be more economical than the setting-up of thermal stations. The development programme envisages the expansion by three times by 1975, of the present capacity of hydel power of 267,800 kw.

Progress

The progress made in the province during the past five years in power generation, transmission and distribution was greater than was cumulatively achieved during the previous 40 years. Some of the features of this progress are as follows:

- The installed capacity of power increased from 328,550 kw in 1959-60 to 650,000 kw in 1965-66.
- The length of transmission lines increased from 4,682 miles to 21,264 miles.
- The number of special stations increased from 76 to 157 upto June 1965.
- The annual energy output increased from 781 million to 2,909 million kw-hr.

- The number of consumers grew from 311,586 to 801,475 in June 1965.
- The number of villages electrified rose from 609 to 2,052 in June 1966.
- The gross annual revenue from power increased from Rs 75 million to Rs 243 million.

The rapid growth in the demand of tubewells (increasing very fast from the present 22,000) is leading to much more rapid electrification of rural areas on an economically justified basis. Indeed WAPDA had planned electrification of 5,000 villages during the Second Plan. Although it did electrify 1,400 villages during this period from its resources, the comprehensive programme for 5,000 villages had to be carried over into the Third Plan because of non-finalisation of negotiations for foreign assistance.

Multan Power Station

A power station is situated at Piran Ghaib, near Multan, and is run on Sui natural gas. Work on this project was started by the PIDC, but it was handed over to the Water and Power Development Authority in January 1959. The main project with a capacity of 130,000 kw was completed in 1960. The station has a total installed capacity of 265,700 kw. The extension scheme of the power station was completed in 1963 with the installation of two more turbines of 65,000 kw each, raising the capacity to 260,000 kw.

Mobile Gas Turbines

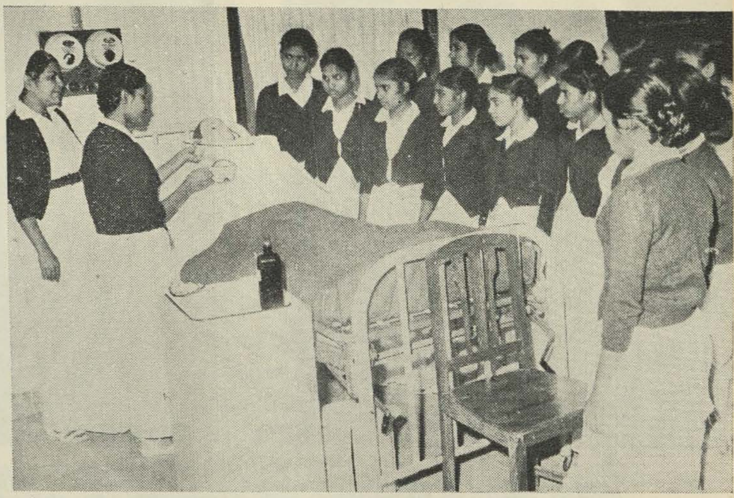
In order to bridge the gap between the firm generating capacity and the ever rising demand in the Main Grid area before sizeable power is made available from Mangla in 1967, two mobile gas-fired units with an aggregate capacity of 26,000 kw were installed and commissioned at Shahdara, Lahore, in August 1966. The turbines installed are transportable type and can be moved to strategic loan centres. These units can also be utilised as synchronous condensers during off peak hours.

Quetta Thermal Power Station

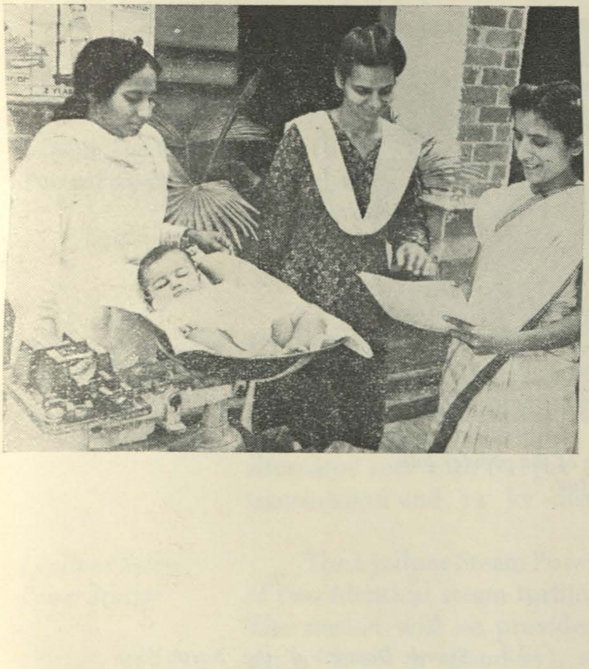
One station provides 15,000 kw of power to the Quetta and Kalat Divisions and thus meets a large domestic and industrial demand. The project comprises two steam-turbo units of 7,500 kw each, using low grade indigenous coal found near Quetta. During 1964-65 it generated 20.02 million units.

The Quetta station incorporates a single unit system in which each turbine is fed by its own high pressure boiler. One design feature of the Quetta power station is the special cooling system called Dry Cooling, in which cooling water is used over and over again in a closed cycle. This method has been adopted to economise on water which is scarce in Baluchistan. The scheme also includes a high voltage transmission and distribution network extending within a radius of 50 miles of the power station and providing power for the coal mines, irrigation tubewells and for industrial and domestic uses in Quetta city.

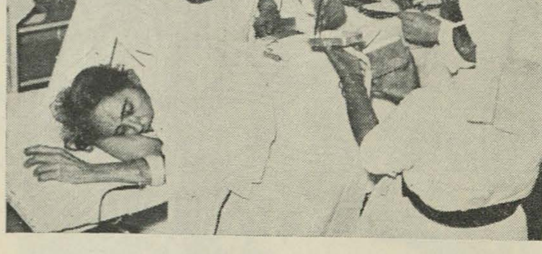
The installation of the entire power station equipment and



Trainee-nurses attending a demonstration.



Baby care is a must. Here a baby is being weighed by Health Visitors.



A Surgeon performing an operation in a hospital in Karachi.



"Two Women" : A painting by Zainul Abedin.

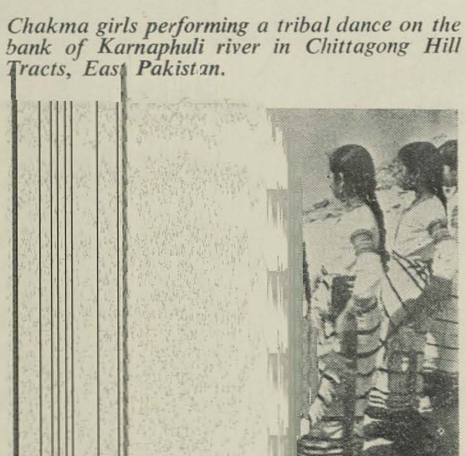


"A Princess reciting Holy Quran": A painting by Abdur Rahman Chughtai.

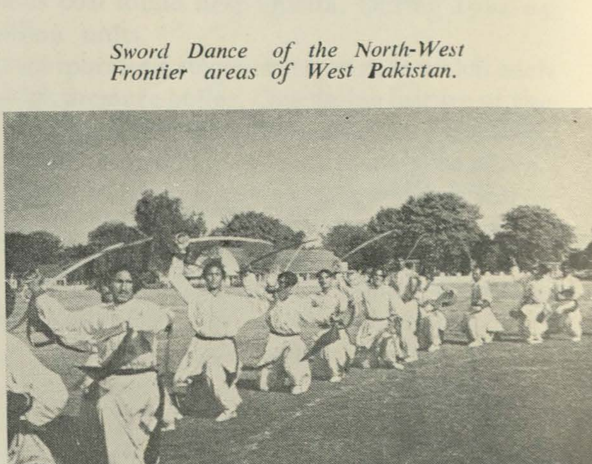


Manipuri dance—one of the popular folk dances of East Pakistan.

Chakma girls performing a tribal dance on the bank of Karnaphuli river in Chittagong Hill Tracts, East Pakistan.



Sword Dance of the North-West Frontier areas of West Pakistan.



machinery was completed and the station put into commercial use on 13th September, 1964.

Hyderabad Thermal Power Station

Consisting of two steam units of 7,500 kw each and one gas-turbine of 5,700 kw the Hyderabad Thermal Power station was commissioned during the first half of 1961. The object of this scheme was to set up a thermal station of a total capacity of 20,000 kw together with a network of transmission and distribution lines to meet the growing demand for power in the lower Sind area. Sub-stations have been set up at Tando Adam, Mirpurkhas, Tando Mohammad Khan, Tando Allahyar, Nawabshah, Matli, Badin, Digri and Tando Ghulam Ali. From these stations power is being supplied to 20 towns in the lower Sind area, including the townships which were previously served by uneconomic diesel units. The work was completed in June, 1963.

The Hyderabad Thermal Extension Scheme (under construction) envisages the installation of a steam plant of 15,000 kw and an additional unit of 8,000 kw. The 8,000 kw unit has already been put into operation, raising the present capacity from 20,700 kw to 28,700 kw. With the completion of the 15,000 kw within the next few months the total capacity of the station will increase to 43,700 kw.

Sukkur Thermal Power Project

The Sukkur Thermal Power Project, completed in 1965, has a central thermal station with an initial capacity of 25,000 kw. From this power station a transmission network has spread over a radius of 70 miles, carrying power to towns of northern Sind area, including Shikarpur, Jacobabad, Larkana, Haripur, Gambat and Nara Canal.

It was found that the initial generating capacity of the station could not meet the ever-increasing demand for power especially in view of a number of salinity control and anti-waterlogging schemes coming up in the area, so an extension of the Sukkur station has been taken up. This project also provides for two 12,500 kw turbo alternator sets with Sui gas fuel and the extension of the 66 kv transmission and 11 kv distribution system.

Lyallpur Steam Power Station

The Lyallpur Steam Power Station now under construction consists of two identical steam turbine generating units of 66,000 kw each. The station will be provided with dual fuel station boilers (natural gas with oil as stand-by), step-up transformers and auxiliary equipments. The units are to be used for intermediate or peaking service of the WAPDA system in order to meet load requirements during 1966-67 winter season and before the 300,000 kw Mangla power house comes into operation. Early completion of the Lyallpur Thermal Power Station was necessary in view of power shortage in the province.

After Multan, Hyderabad and Sukkur power stations, this is yet another power station using indigenous natural gas as fuel. The gas pipeline to Lyallpur has been extended by Sui Northern Gas Pipe Line Ltd.

Gujranwala Hydel Station

The Gujranwala Hydel project, commissioned in March 1963, is situated on the Upper Chenab near Nandipur. It has an installed capacity of 13,000 kw which is provided by three turbo-alternator sets of 4,600 kw each. Originally it was planned to supply power to the SCARP tubewells but later it was decided to connect it on the National Grid in order to stabilize the system.

Shadiwal Hydel Station

The Shadiwal Hydel Station utilizes an artificial fall of 23 feet on the Upper Jhelum Canal. The power house has two generators of 6,750 kw capacity each. A 5-mile 132 kv transmission line connects with the National Grid at Gujrat.

The project has been largely financed by the Canadian Government under the Colombo Plan.

Chichoki Mallian Hydel Station

Like Gujranwala and Shadiwal hydel stations the Chichoki Mallian project also utilizes an artificial fall of 22 feet on the Upper Chenab Canal for the generation of power. It is situated 20 miles from Lahore. The power house has three generator sets with a total installed capacity of 13,800 kw. The station has special significance for Lahore as, when necessary, the power can be directly supplied to the city by isolating this station from the rest of the system.

The project was completed in 1959.

Warsak Power Station

Since its commissioning in 1960 the Warsak power station has been, along with Multan Station, one of the sources of power for the main grid network.

The Warsak power station has four generators of 40,000 kw each and it is a part of the multi-purpose project built on the Kabul river about 20 miles north-west of Peshawar. The main dam is about 750 feet long, 235 feet high and 210 feet wide at the foundation. The 26-mile lake upstream of the dam, and extending to Pakistan's frontier, feeds the power house through a concrete lined power tunnel branching off into six steel lined penstocks of 18 feet diameter each. A provision has been made for the installation of two more generators to raise the final installed capacity from 60,000 kw to 240,000 kw.

TABLE 20

MAJOR POWER PROJECTS COMPLETED

East Pakistan	*Kilowatts*
Sidhirganj Diesel Station	18,000
Sidhirganj Steam Station	30,000
Chittagong Diesel Station	10,000
Khulna Steam Station	16,000
Khulna Diesel Station	10,000
Bheramara Steam Station	8,000
Karnaphuli Hydro-electric Station	80,000
Thakurgaon Diesel Station	7,500
Karnaphuli-Sidhirganj Double Circuit 132 kv Inter-connector	—

West Pakistan

	Kilowatts
Karachi 'A' Station	15,000
Karachi 'B' Station	30,000
Karachi Dual Fuel Station	15,000
Karachi 'B' Station Extension	66,000
Karachi 'C' Station	1,30,000
Malakand Hydro-electric Station	10,000
Dargai Hydro-electric Station	20,000
Rasul Hydro-electric Station	22,000
Chichoki Mallian Hydro-electric Station	13,000
Shadiwal Hydro-electric Station	13,000
Gujranwala Hydro-electric Station	13,000
Kurramgarhi Hydro-electric Station	4,000
Warsak Hydro-electric Station	1,60,000
Multan Thermal Station	2,65,000
Hyderabad Steam Station	20,000
Sukkur Steam Station	25,000
Quetta Steam Station	15,000
West Pakistan High Tension System	
Multan-Lyallpur 220 kv Inter-connector.	

TABLE 21

POWER DEVELOPMENT IN PAKISTAN

	Kilowatts					Million Units					
Year	*Power Capacity*					*Energy Produced*					Annual per capita load
	Supply Undertaking			*Private Industrial Estates*	*Total Generating Capacity*	*Supply Undertaking*			Industries	*Total*	
	E. Pak	*W. Pak*	*Total*			*E. Pak*	*W. Pak*	*Total*			
1947*	7,600	68,800	76,490	34,000	110,400	11	118	129	89	218	3 units
1955	32,196	168,126	200,322	142,000	342,322	35	594	629	373	1,002	11 units
1960	108,658	550,229	658,887	252,000	910,887	229	1,221	1,450	710	2,160	22 units
1965	205,672	910,400	1,140,000	290,000	1,408,000	567	,3262	3,829	760	4,589	40 units

Source: *Office of the Chief Engineering Adviser, GOP.*

* Figures for energy produced are for 1948.

10. FUELS AND MINERALS

Introductory.

Organisation. PIDCs; Directorate of Mineral Development; Natural Resources Division; Oil and Gas Development Corporation.

Survey and Prospecting.

Fuels and Minerals. Oil; Petroleum; Natural Gas; Coal and Coalfields; Peat; Iron Ore; Salt and Salt Mines; Brine; Gypsum; Chromite; Marble; Limestone; Clay; Glass Sand; Radio-active Sand; Barytes.

On independence all the known sources of high grade coal and iron ore, bauxite and most other metallic minerals in the subcontinent went to the share of India. The known resources in Pakistan were negligible. The inventory for 1948 was as follows:

Crude petroleum	17 million gallons
Petroleum products	11½ ,, ,,
Coal	241 thousand tons
Salt	318 ,, ,,
Chromite	18 ,, ,,
Limestone	347 ,, ,,
Gypsum	10 ,, ,,

Since then the production has risen considerably, especially during the 'sixties. Concerted search has revealed an impressive reserve of natural wealth. Natural gas, coal, iron ore, chromite, barytes, gypsum and other minerals have been found in both the wings.

The 1964-65 figures were as follows:

Crude petroleum	133 million gallons
Natural gas	63,000 million cubic feet
Coal	1,500 thousand tons
Salt	515 ,, ,,
Chromite	20 ,, ,,
Limestone	2,800 ,, ,,
Gypsum	240 ,, ,,
Silica sand	25 ,, ,,

The growth in mineral products in recent years is revealed by another figure. With 1959-60 as base of 100, the index of mineral production rose as high as 174.5 in 1964-65, that is by nearly 75 per cent in the five years. However, this is not enough

in a country so vast, and in a ferment of development. Increasing import of coal and petroleum is still a heavy drain. Import of fuels alone cost the country nearly Rs 450 million during 1966. For 1970 a further sharp increase in production is envisaged ranging from the smallest increase of 43 per cent in crude petroleum to 150 per cent in natural gas, limestone and chromite, and of 165 per cent in gypsum.

ORGANISATION

The responsibility for the development of fuels and minerals rests with the provincial industrial development corporations, namely EPIDC and WPIDC. The Directorates of Mineral Development in the provinces are concerned with encouraging development in the private sector. The Natural Resources Division of the central government is responsible for geological survey, administering legislations, rules and regulations and for international aspects relating to these. There are a Directorate-General of Geological Survey and an autonomous Oil and Gas Development Corporation. A College of Mineral Technology is being set up to impart academic training in four major divisions of the mineral industry, namely mining geology, mining engineering, metallurgy and fuel technology, and petroleum and gas engineering. Two mining training institutes are also being set up for the training of mining sardars and other underground officials. Such institutes are of vital importance for the proper development of the mining industry.

SURVEY AND PROSPECTING

The search for natural wealth in Pakistan has been limited by paucity of technical staff. In 1965 the geological survey organisation had only 75 geologists, 63 technical officers and 252 other technicians. This number, small as it is, represents a big increase from the five geologists with which the country started in 1947. Facilities have been provided for courses in universities and for training abroad.

In spite of this, geological surveys have been carried out extensively, some with invaluable assistance from foreign experts. The Second Plan Evaluation Report lists a number of important programmes that were carried out with great success during 1960-65, leading to discoveries of additional reserves of several minerals.

In oil and gas prospecting, in this country as in others, it has generally been considered desirable that private companies should be encouraged to provide most of the capital and take the risk of prospecting and developing resources under standards and safeguards laid down by government. The state shares the profit and receives royalty on any oil or gas produced.

The present government has evinced great interest in this field. In 1962 it negotiated for very valuable assistance in equipment and personnel from the Soviet Government and set up a Corporation to carry out the work.

OIL

The production of oil in the country is very small, meeting only

20 per cent of its needs. It has been increasing over the past years, but by slow degrees.

TABLE 21
OIL PRODUCTION

Year	Production (in tons)	Needs met
1948	51,236	10%
1950	167,500	16%
1960	313,374	13%
1965	470,061	20%

The consumption, standing at the present moment at about 4 million tons annually, is continually increasing, thereby raising the import bill. The increase has been at the rate of 9.5 per cent between 1958-64 (compared with 3.4 per cent in the West and 7.8 per cent in the world as a whole). This rate is also in part an index of the development activity in the country during these years.

Exploration

The history of oil exploration in these regions is very old, going back exactly a hundred years ago when the search was also started, with greater success, in some other parts of the world. A great portion of the area of Pakistan is made up of sedimentary rocks which possess the general characteristics of the incidence of oil. The search here began in 1866 in the Potwar and Attock districts, west of River Indus. A large number of wells were drilled near the oil seepages by the then government of the Punjab, but without success. So the position remained till independence in 1947.

After independence new interest was shown in oil prospecting. The important point of departure was the making of oil prospecting a central subject instead of provincial. The same year (1949) marked the first success in the field: Burmah Oil Company discovered some oil in their Chakwal area, which, however, proved later on to be only an extension of the Balkassar oil-field.

In 1949-50, the Bugti-Mari area was photographed from the air and in 1950 a deep-test well was drilled at Lakhra by Burmah Oil Company. In the same year Pakistan Petroleum Limited was formed for the exploration of oil. In 1951, this company discovered gas at Sui, which brought Pakistan on the petroleum map of the world. Subsequently gas was discovered at Sylhet in 1955, and at Chattak in 1959.

Other companies joined the search. A vast area was covered by aeromagnetic, geological and geophysical work. A number of wells were drilled. The net result was that some gas fields were discovered in both the wings, but no additional oil-field, except for a small one at Karsal in the already known oil region of Potwar. By 1960 most of the companies started reducing their activities and some of them eventually closed down.

After the new government took over it stimulated the search once again. It negotiated a loan with the Soviet Union with which Soviet equipment and personnel were obtained. About the same time, September 1961, an Oil and Gas Development Corporation

was set up to continue the work. The Corporation started drilling in both the wings of Pakistan in 1964.

By a combination of the latest means and know-how of exploration the work has now been extended to unsurveyed difficult areas. There still remain very large unsurveyed areas which will also be explored.

The Oil and Gas Development Corporation has also been pursuing an intensive programme for the training of Pakistanis in various fields of petroleum technology both within and outside the country. In 1965, 28 persons were sent abroad. The Petroleum Institute of Pakistan has made good progress in the two years of its existence.

Private Companies

The private companies, foreign and indigenous, which have interested themselves in oil exploration in the country include the following:

• *Pakistan Oil Fields Ltd.*, which drilled 15 wells in Potwar region, all of which, barring two, proved unsuccessful. The two produced small quantities of oil. Of the other wells drilled by it in Dhulian, only one was some success.

• *Pakistan Petroleum Ltd.*, which, with a 29 per cent government share, has drilled 55 wells in both the wings and has discovered quantities of oil in two and natural gas in eight places.

• *Pak-Stanvac Petroleum Project*, which has drilled 17 wells in both the wings, and discovered only one gas-field at Mari in West Pakistan.

• *Pakistan-Sun Oil Company*, whose extensive gravity and seismic surveys and drilling in the lower Sind Basin and off-shore areas near Karachi, since 1957, have not yet met with success.

• *Pakistan Shell Oil Company*, whose surveys and drilling in the Western wing proving unsuccessful, it moved to the Eastern wing in 1960, where it has found natural gas in four places, in commercial quantity.

PETROLEUM

Before independence, Pakistan had only one small refinery at Rawalpindi. It operated on the supplies of crude oil produced locally in surrounding areas.

The first to be set up after independence was at Korangi, Karachi, and it went into production in October 1962. Its production capacity was expanded to 2.4 million tons a year in July 1964.

The next venture, started in August 1960, was the National Refinery Ltd, also located in the Korangi industrial area. Set up at a cost of Rs 100 million it has a capacity of half a million tons and is mainly producing diesel oil, kerosene oil and jet fuels, base for lubricants, asphalt, and bitumen. It will make the country self-sufficient in these products which are important both for industry and for defence production. Asphalt and bitumen are important for road construction.

The third refinery, based on imported crude oils, is under installation at Chittagong, and is to have a capacity of one million tons.

While the refinery at Rawalpindi meets the need for motor gasoline, fuel oil and a part of kerosene oil, those at Karachi meet the

demand of ships for fuel oil bunkers and of foreign airlines calling at Karachi. The high speed diesel and kerosene oil produced are enough to meet 80 per cent of the demand of the Western province.

NATURAL GAS

In all there are 14 gas-fields in Pakistan—six in the Eastern wing and eight in the Western. Their total reserves have been estimated at over 21.80 billion (million million) cubic feet. Of this total, less than 300,000 million cubic feet or only 1.5 per cent had been produced till the end of 1965. This leaves a total of a little less than 21.8 billion cubic feet at the disposal of the country, which at the present rate of consumption should last for over a century.

The consumption in 1955 was 1,375 million cubic feet. It rose to 29,824 million cubic feet in 1960, and to 72,000 million cubic feet in 1965.

TABLE 22
NATURAL GAS RESERVE

Million million cubic feet

Location of Gas-fields (with year of discovery)	*Estimated Reserves*	*Utilisation upto December 1964*
East Pakistan		
Sylhet (1955) ..	0.28	0.019
Chattak (1959) ..	0.02	—
Rashidpur (1960)	0.74	—
Kailash Tila (1962)	0.38	—
Titas (1962) ..	2.25	—
Habiganj (1963) ..	1.30	—
Jaldi (1964) ..	Not available	—
Total East Pakistan	4.97	0.019
West Pakistan		
Sui (1952) ..	6.30	0.285
Zin (1954) ..	0.10	—
Uch (1955) ..	2.50	—
Khairpur (1957) ..	1.00	—
Mari (1957) ..	5.00	—
Dhulian (1957) ..	1.70	—
Mazarani (1958) ..	0.03	—
Khand Kot (1959)	0.20	—
Total West Pakistan	16.83	0.285
Grand Total:	21.80	0.304

The country's oil and gas industry has recently located two new promising gas-fields, one at Jaldi, near Chittagong, and the other at Sari, about 50 miles off Karachi. Several more gas-fields are presumed to exist.

Utilisation

In Pakistan natural gas is used mainly as fuel for power production, and as feed-stock for the production of synthetic fertilisers. Of the total gas consumption from natural gas-fields in 1965, about 49,660 million cubic feet or over 91 per cent was utilised by various industrial, commercial and domestic consumers as a source of heat and power and about 4,770 million cubic feet or about 9 per cent as feed-stock.

With its high methane content, natural gas discovered in the two wings of Pakistan offers a ready-made carbon-hydrogen molecular skeleton for the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen for use as fertiliser. For the manufacture of chemical fertilisers, such as urea, virtually no other raw material besides natural gas is necessary; urea has double the nitrogen content of ammonium sulphate.

Two fertiliser factories based on natural gas, one in each wing, are already in production. The Fenchuganj fertiliser uses Sylhet gas and has a rated capacity of 117,000 tons of urea per annum, while the Multan factory uses Sui gas and has an annual production of 250,000 tons in terms of ammonium sulphate.

The Mari gas-field is also to be tapped for production of 173,000 tons of urea, equivalent to 370,000 tons of ammonium sulphate.

The gas from Chattak gas-field is used entirely for the production of cement.

The objective is to use as much of the gas as possible for production of fertilisers and petro-chemicals. To ensure this, detailed investigations are now in progress. Studies are being undertaken of the comparative economics of the utilisation of petroleum products, natural gas and indigenous coal as fuel. The utilisation of gas as fuel is not encouraged wherever coal can conveniently be provided, for gas is more precious as raw material for industry.

While providing the developing industrial complex of Pakistan with its fuel needs, the natural gas industry has brought about substantial savings in foreign exchange expenditure on import of oil. Until the end of 1964, the country had consumed about 300,000 million cubic feet of natural gas, which in terms of heating value is equivalent to over six million tons of fuel oil, and thus brought about a saving of some 380 million rupees in foreign exchange.

It is estimated that during the Third Plan period the utilisation of gas will go up from about 80,000 million cubic feet in 1965 to 200,000 million cubic feet in 1970, of which 25 per cent will be utilised in power generation, 35 per cent as raw material for the production of fertilisers and petro-chemicals, 30 per cent as fuel for industries and 10 per cent as fuel for commercial and domestic uses.

The advantages of the growing gas industry are materialising in the shape of fruitful employment, training, better roads, housing and medical facilities.

The Sui gas-field has led to the springing up of an entirely new town in the desert wilderness of Baluchistan with all the amenities that are available in any big town of the country.

Sui Gas

Although gas was discovered in West Pakistan in 1952, its commercial utilisation started in October 1955, when gas from Sui was transmitted through 347 miles of 16-inch steel pipe to supply industries in Sukkur, Hyderabad and Karachi. By virtue of its convenience, cheapness, ready availability and multiple advantages over alternative fuels (*i.e.* coal and oil) it soon established its ascendency. Within a span of two years all large and small industries in Sukkur, Hyderabad and Karachi were using gas.

Transmission pipelines exist from Sui to Karachi and Sui to Multan, and from Dhulian to Rawalpindi and Wah. The newly formed Northern Gas Pipeline Company, which has taken over these lines, is now engaged in setting up an integrated transmission and distribution system north of Multan. Facilities are being provided in the current Plan period for the transmission and distribution of the gas in Lahore, Gujranwala, Jhelum and Peshawar up in the north. Similar facilities are being provided in the southern districts of Kotri, Tando Adam, Shikarpur, Larkana, Tando Mohammad Khan, Talher, Shahdadpur and Tando Jam.

Starting from a daily average of below 10 million cubic feet in 1955, the consumption of gas in the western province rose to nearly 30,000 million cubic feet in 1960, and then to about 72,000 million cubic feet in 1965. The pattern of consumption (according to 1962-63 figures) was as follows:

- Use by industries, mainly as fuel 55%
- Use for generation of power 36%
- Use for commercial and domestic purpose ... 9%

The only use of gas as raw material in industry, apart from its use as fuel, has been, so far, in the production of nitrogenous fertiliser at Multan.

Titas Gas

Gas was discovered in Titas, near Dacca, in 1962 and residents of Dacca will get their first supply of it by December 1967. The industries in this area will get it a little earlier, by July 1967. The first to receive the supply will be the Sidhirganj Power Station, in March/April 1967, which will then use gas instead of furnace oil for the production of electricity for the industrial units around it. Both as fuel for domestic consumption and as power for the industries, gas will be substantially cheaper.

The total recoverable reserves at Titas gas field has been estimated at 2.25 million million cubic feet. According to present plans, the gas will be used mainly for four purposes: (1) running of industries which will use gas in boilers/furnaces, (2) production of electricity, (3) production of fertiliser, and (4) cooking.

By producing 300,000 kw electricity alone, Titas gas will save about Rs. 108 million in foreign exchange every year. Another Rs 46½ million in foreign exchange, now spent on account of importa-

tion of 90 thousand tons of coal and 66 thousand tons of furnace oil consumed by 100 industrial units in the industrial belts around Dacca, Narayanganj and Tongi, will be saved annually. All these units will change over to gas from July 1967. Thus the total annual savings in foreign exchange in respect of fuel and power alone will be of Rs 154¼ million. To this is to be added another substantial amount which the country will save by producing 340,000 tons of fertiliser per year at the proposed Ghorasal fertiliser factory.

Laying of pipelines under the Rs 50 million Titas gas transmission and distribution project is now progressing. About half of the work, which includes most of the difficult portion, such as laying the pipelines across rivers, bridges, *etc.*, has been completed. The remaining portion of the 50-mile pipeline is expected to be completed by February 1967.

The 14-inch diameter Titas-Demra transmission pipeline is designed to carry about 165 million cubic feet of gas per day, but provision has also been made for future rise in demand. A 30 per cent increase in supply is possible: another 50 million cubic feet per day can be effected by installing a compressor unit. Total length of the distribution pipelines will be about 40 miles.

The head installations, including the condensate plant, have been completed near the Titas gas field. The gas contains 100 MWF methane, and so does not require purification.

The East Pakistan WAPDA has already placed its demand for gas at the rate of 70-80 million cubic feet per day for projected power stations at Sidhirganj (80 thousand kw), Ashuganj (120 thousand kw) and the one near Ghorasal (110 thousand kw). Together with the demand for the proposed fertiliser factory at Ghorasal (about 30 million cubic feet per day), the total consumption of Titas gas for production of electricity and fertiliser will be about 100 million cubic feet per day. This will leave about 60 million cubic feet of gas per day for use by the industries in and around Dacca, Narayanganj and Tongi, and for household consumption. At the rate of 150 million cubic feet of consumption per day, the reserves at Titas will last for over 40 years.

An average family will consume no more than 1,500 cubic feet per month (which is equivalent to 230 units of electricity) which will cost only Rs 14. The same family, using kerosene, would consume about 3 tins of kerosene worth Rs 21, so that the gas will be substantially cheaper.

The distribution company will arrange for supply of standard gas cookers for their consumers and some well-known firms are expected to set up local manufacturing units near Dacca.

For industries, maximum rate is likely to be Rs 2.52 (per 1,000 cubic feet) for those using less than 90 thousand cubic feet a month, and Rs 1.25 for those using more than 400,000 cubic feet per month. The economy offered to industry will be proportionately much higher.

The Titas gas pipeline project is being jointly financed by the government and the Pakistan Shell Oil Company Ltd.

COAL

Coal is one of the principal minerals produced in Pakistan and consumed on an extensive scale by industries, railways and defence services. However, the production is very insufficient for the country's needs. In 1965 it was 1½ million tons and the rest to the value of Rs 40 to Rs 45 million, had to be imported. It is expected that the production will be doubled by 1970, and will reach the figure of 4.8 million tons by 1975.

An investment of about Rs 304 million is being made over the 1965-70 period, of which Rs 165 million is by the private sector. This is a high investment in relation to the immediate results expected, but such investment is necessary now, for dividends later on. Substantial production from deep coal mines in East Pakistan, for instance, may be possible only by 1969-70.

The coal of West Pakistan coalfields is of lignitic to sub-bituminous type, generally occurring in lenticular beds which range in thickness from a few inches to a few feet, high in ash and sulphur contents, friable and often liable to spontaneous combustion. Their heating values range from 7,000 British thermal unit to 12,200 British thermal unit, per pound. The coal from the recently discovered Bogra coalfield in East Pakistan is of better quality being of bituminous type. There are several coal seams having a composite thickness of about 170 feet. Coal is at present used mainly in brick and lime burning, ginning factories, for domestic uses and also in the thermal power stations and fertiliser factories. It could also be used for the carbonisation, gasification and in chemical industries.

Examining the demand pattern for indigenous coal, the brick-kiln industry accounts for 80 per cent of the total. For this industry, coal does not require any special treatment and is supplied to the consumers as run-of-mine. However, the demand from this industry would soon be saturated and if coal production is to be raised according to the stipulation of the Third Five-Year Plan some additional and more important uses are to be found.

Coalfields

There are eight major coalfields in the country: Salt Range and Makerwal coalfields located in Rawalpindi and Sargodha divisions; Sor Range-Degari, Khost-Sharigh-Harnai and Mach coalfields, all three situated in the Quetta and Kalat divisions; and Lakhra and Meting-Jhimpir coalfields, situated in Hyderabad division, some 80 miles north and east of Karachi respectively. The newly discovered coalfield in East Pakistan is in the Rajshahi-Bogra area.

Among the major coalfields of Pakistan the Bogra coalfield in East Pakistan and the Lakhra coalfield in West Pakistan have recently been discovered by the Geological Survey of Pakistan through extensive surveys. A brief account of each of the coalfields is given below.

Salt Range Coalfield

Salt Range coalfield is spread over an area of about 100 square miles. Only one workable coal seam, ranging in thickness from a few inches to a maximum of five feet, is present. Probable reserves of 75 million tons have been estimated for this coalfield. The production in 1965 was about 200,000 tons.

Makerwal Mines

Makerwal coalfield covers an area of 30 square miles. Coal occurs in a single bed ranging in thickness from 3 feet to 10 feet. All categories of reserves upto a depth of 200 feet below sea level have been estimated to be of the order of 19 million tons. The WPIDC has developed coal mining in the area by constructing a mile long haulage tunnel. Present production of about 700 tons per day is expected to go up to 1,000 tons.

Sor Range-Degari coalfield

Sor Range-Degari coalfield covers an area of about 20 square miles. Several coal beds ranging in thickness from a few inches to a maximum of ten feet are present but not more than two are mineable in any one of the leases. According to a recently completed survey by the Geological Survey of Pakistan, probable reserves of 25 million tons of coal have been estimated for this field. Large scale development of coal mining by WPIDC and private mining companies is in progress. Each mine is expected to achieve the production target of 1,000 tons of coal per day in the near future.

Khost-Sharigh-Harnai coalfield

Khost-Sharigh-Harnai is the largest coalfield in Quetta and Kalat divisions spread over an area of 80 square miles. Several coal seams ranging in thickness from a few inches to four feet are present and are being mined. Reserves of 40 million tons of coal have so far been estimated. Development is also in progress in this field by WPIDC. The production from this field in 1965 was about 100,000 tons.

Mach coalfield

Mach coalfield covers an area of 16 square miles. Coal occurs in several beds ranging in thickness from a few inches to about 4 feet, out of which 3 to 4 are economically workable. Reserves of 15 million tons of coal have been estimated assuming that mining will be possible upto a depth of 2,000 feet. The production from this field in 1965 was 68,000 tons.

Lakhra coalfield

Lakhra coalfield, about 80 miles north of Karachi, is spread over an area of 80 square miles. A coal bed ranging in thickness from 2.5 feet to 8.5 feet has been proved by drilling in an area of some 50 square miles within a depth of 150 feet. 170 million tons of coal reserves have been estimated for this area. The coal production has recently started.

Meting-Jhimpir coalfield

Meting-Jhimpir coalfield lies about 80 miles east of Karachi. Only one coal seam ranging in thickness from a few inches to 3 feet is present. Drilling by Geological Survey of Pakistan in an area of 30 square miles found the coal at a depth of 300 feet; 28 million tons of

reserves for this field have been estimated. The production in 1965 from this coalfield was about 60,000 tons.

Bogra coalfield

The search for oil in East Pakistan led to evidences of coal. Investigations were quickly made with the assistance of a UN assisted mineral survey project to determine the nature and extent of the deposits. Coal of good quality was found at a depth cf 3,661 feet at Paharpur (Bogra) with an aggregate thickness of more than 170 feet. Gondwana coal was found at a depth ranging from 3,000 to 3,500 feet. One square mile of the area here, with coal one foot thick, will yield one million tons of reserves. The drilling at another spot, Chana Kamal, proved the existence of coal from 3,000 to 3,300 feet. A technical report on Bogra coal was due from German consultants at the end of 1966. Commercial exploitation was expected to be possible by 1971, when at the beginning two to three thousand tons are likely to be mined annually. Drilling by the Geological Survey of Pakistan has proved the presence of 700 million tons of coal at mineable depths ranging from 3,100 to 3,800 feet. Another 760 million tons are categorised as indicated reserves.

Sylhet Reserves

Geological surveys and drilling have proved the presence of coal in Sylhet district. The reserves have been estimated at 3 million tons.

PEAT

Peat is found almost entirely in the Eastern province. Latest estimates put the reserves at over 1,000 million tons, as follow:

•Faridpur	875 million tons
•Sylhet	35 million tons
•Khulna & others	90 million tons

All this wet peat would be equivalent to 143 million tons of dry peat. Full studies have been made by the Geological Survey Organisation and some foreign experts on the occurrence, extent and characteristics of the mineral found. Feasibility reports have been prepared on the utilisation of these huge deposits. The surveys so far conducted have indicated that the peat seam averages about 6 feet in thickness and is overlain by clay to a depth varying from zero to 12 feet, the average being 5 feet. Faridpur peat especially has all the distinctive characteristics of good fuel.

IRON ORE

The known iron ore resources in Pakistan are estimated at over 400 million tons, but the quality has so far vitiated attempts at their utilisation for steel making. Its metallic iron content is only a little over 30 per cent. Reserves of sedimentary type ore are approximately 394 million tons whereas reserves of metamorphic and lateritic type are of the order of about 3.7 and 15.4 million tons respectively.

Recently, the ore deposits were subjected to detailed mapping

and studies under a UN assisted project. The largest known iron ore deposits, of more than 300 million tons, are located in Kalabagh-Makerwal area and may become the principal source of iron ore for a national iron and steel industry. This ore contains carbonate, silicate and oxide of iron and has an average of 30 to 35 per cent iron and 15 to 25 per cent silica.

Total available reserves of iron deposits in Hazara region are tentatively estimated at about 60 million tons. The ore is poor grade with high content of alumina, silica and undesirable elements like phosphorous and sulphur. Recently discovered iron deposits near Langrial, Hazara district, are estimated to be about 27 million tons with an average iron content of 30 to 45 per cent.

In Dammer Nissar (Chitral), the reserves of magnetite iron ore are estimated at 3.7 million tons, averaging 60 per cent iron content. At present the exploitation of this ore is considered uneconomic because of difficulties of access and high cost of transportation. In Quetta division where a number of small deposits of iron ore were found, a laterite deposit was investigated near Ziarat. The average iron content was 29 per cent, alumina 30 per cent and titania 5 per cent. The composition changes abruptly both in lateral and vertical directions. Reserves of 15 million tons are estimated for about a quarter of the laterite bearing area. Good quality iron deposits have been discovered near Dalbandin, Chagai. Detailed investigations are under way.

The final report on the feasibility of using indigenous iron ore for the production of steel is still awaited but the preliminary report shows that the production of steel from these ores is now a possibility within reach. The Third Plan should see a beginning for the setting up of an integrated steel mill to meet a part of the large gap between requirements and production of Chittagong and Karachi steel mills.

SALT

There are deposits of rock salt of excellent quality in the western wing, and its sea coast offers particularly favourable condition for the extraction of sea salt by solar evaporation. The eastern wing has no rock salt deposits, and extraction from sea water is carried on under much less favourable condition. On the whole the country has considerable natural advantages in salt production.

The mining of rock salt and extraction from lakes are government monopolies. Extraction from sea water is done as private business but under government supervision.

During 1966 the production of rock salt was 266,000 tons and of sea salt over 20,000 tons.

There are six salt mines and quarries in the Western wing: at Khewra (Jhelum), Warcha (Sargodha), Kalabagh (Mianwali) and at Jatta, Bahadurkhel and Karak (Kohat). Recent geological studies have indicated reserves at Khewra of 83 million tons; at Bahadurkhel more than 4,512 feet of salt was proved.

Salt Mines

Khewra

The second biggest in the world, the Khewra mine is situated in the Jhelum district of West Pakistan. Millions of years ago the Punjab was under the sea, called by the geologists Teths Sea. On drying up this sea gave rise to the present salt beds. Certain tectonic movements took place and these salt beds were raised up and formed a hill terrain extending from Jalalpur Sharif to Mari Indus. This is known as the Salt Range. The salt in these hills was noticed as far back as 327 B.C. by Alexandar. It is presumed that the salt must have been worked at that time or even before. With the passage of time this salt mine changed hands from the Mughals to the Sikhs and from the Sikhs to the British.

Today over 1,000 miners and workers help produce 600 tons of rock salt from this mine every day. With 98.4 per cent sodium chloride content, this salt is considered very suitable for human consumption.

Warcha

Warcha salt mines are situated at a distance of 9 miles from Quaidabad, a township in Thal on the Khushab-Mianwali Road. Salt excavation here also has probably been going on since the fourth century B.C. Evidence is available that the salt was excavated here during the Mughal and Sikh periods and a few excavations are still available on the upper level of the mine showing markings of that time. The British Government took it over in 1849 but systematic mining operations commenced in 1869. These mines are producing salt at the rate of 40 to 45 thousand tons per annum to feed surrounding districts.

Kalabagh

The Kalabagh mines are situated on the right bank of the River Indus, two miles to the north east of Kalabagh town. To reach the mine, one has to go by a boat. The salt in these hills that are known as the Salt Range, was also noticed as far back as 328 B.C. Later, in 1809 A.D., a British traveller visiting the town saw lanes with pavement of salt. Even now some houses are so situated that the people can break salt from their windows. The transport of salt from working places upto the loading stations is done by mules, but it is now being replaced by mechanical haulage. From the loading station it is carried by trucks to the bank of River Indus where it is ferried to the other bank for shipment to different stations by rail. Some salt is also taken down the river by boats.

Development

Great improvements have been made in the management and working of all these mines since the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation took them over in July 1962. These improvements comprise electrification, installation of mechanical haulage, construction of roads and depots, workshops and power house buildings, and general improvement in loading and cutting facilities. As a result, production jumped by 33 per cent in a year. There was streamlining also on the business side: monopolies of traders were broken, and credit and other facilities were arranged. Schemes are under way to cut down the production cost by replacing the conventional and costly

method of tunnelling, boring, cutting and blasting with that of injecting fresh water into salt beds through bore holes, pumping out salt brine on the surface and then purifying it. Plans are under way to utilise the brine now coming from Warcha mine for the production of 12,000 tons of table salt every year.

BRINE

A huge reserve of brine of about 25 million barrels was discovered in Dhariala in Jhelum district. It contains valuable salts of potassium, sodium, magnesium and calcium. Salts extracted from this will be a valuable export, and the potassium can be used as a fertiliser. Based on a flow of 300 barrels a day, a single well will last for 20 years.

GYPSUM

Gypsum, which is embedded in tertiary rocks, associated with shales and clays, is another precious possession of Pakistan. Its deposits are widespread in West Pakistan in accessible areas and in very large quantities. It has also been found in the tribal areas of the north western region. At present WPIDC is producing about 215,000 tons of gypsum at Daudkhel quarries.

A large part of it is utilised in the manufacture of chemical fertilisers and since recently in cement and other industries. At the cottage industry level it is being used for ornamental articles, such as electric light shades, vases and ash trays.

Very large deposits are present in the Salt Range, Trans Indus Salt Range, and the Sulaiman Range in West Pakistan. Recently additional deposits have been found in Loralai district of Baluchistan. Deposits of Salt Range are being used in fertiliser and cement factories. Its production will rise steeply with the increase in demand for manufacture of plaster and plaster boards and in casting and moulding.

Half of the production was exported in 1964-65 to India, but after her aggression the export has mainly been to Ceylon, Hongkong and Indonesia.

CHROMITE

Chromite has been exploited commercially in Hindubagh area in the Zhob Valley of Quetta division since the beginning of the 20th century. It is an important foreign exchange earner of Pakistan.

The production, which is still increasing, was 14,000 tons in 1965. It is expected to be doubled in the next two years as a result of fuller development of the Hindubagh chrome mines.

Apart from Hindubagh, new deposits have lately been discovered in Kharan, Waziristan and in areas adjoining Fort Sandeman.

MARBLE

Large deposits of marble of different varieties have been discovered in Peshawar, Quetta and Kalat divisions. Some deposits have also been located recently in the Dadu district of Hyderabad division. Marble in the afore-mentioned three regions varies in colour from pure white, yellow, pink, grey to jet black. Green is the most common in the Chagai district of Quetta division.

At present there are four marble processing units, mainly for

the manufacture of slabs and tiles. The method of quarrying and processing of marble is being modernised in the Third Plan period and efforts are also being made to increase the quantum of processing in the marble industry. The Plan makes provision in the government financed sector for the appointment of consultants to assist mine owners in the formulation of development projects for marble mining and processing.

The principal use of marble is as building stone for both interiors and exteriors. It is also used for memorials and decorative purposes. A recent notable use of it was in the State Bank of Pakistan building at Karachi. It is also to be liberally used in the Quaid-e-Azam's mausoleum and the National Bank of Pakistan building. Extensive use of local marble has been made in the construction of the Pakistan House in the new capital, Islamabad.

The present demand for marble in the country in wrought form and as tiles and chips is estimated at over 6,000 tons per annum and may increase to 15,000 tons by 1970.

While home demand is increasing with greater building activity, marble is also being exported in wrought form to Italy and Japan.

LIMESTONE

There are inexhaustible deposits of limestone in West Pakistan. East Pakistan in general has been very short of stone, and the limestone for the Chandragona paper mills, and for conversion into quicklime to be used for cottage industry operations, has had to be imported from India. The picture has, however, been changing: large deposits have been found in the north-west of Chattak at depths ranging between 25 to 500 feet and further exploration here and elsewhere continues, for it has been established by geological and resistivity survey drilling that the deposit continues beneath the alluvium between the hillocks. So far 20 million tons have been proved in this area, and further 2 million tons are exposed on small hills.

This limestone is of high quality and can be used not only in making cement and lime as aggregate in construction of buildings but also in soda ash industry, in sugar and paper mills and in the steel plant in Chittagong which is shortly to go into production.

CLAY

White clay deposits have been discovered in part of the Eastern province (Bijaipur area and north of Balijuri). Estimated reserves in the hills are 200,000 tons. The total thickness of the beds ranges from 8 feet to 14 feet, the average being 10 feet.

China Clay

Deposits of white china clay (kaolin) have been found in Nagar Parkar area at depths ranging between 5 feet to 100 feet. The probable reserve of china clay in Nagar Parkar area is about 300,000 tons. These deposits are lense shaped and range from a few inches to about 10 feet in thickness. On being fired to 1,150°c, the clay produced good white colour and did not become steel hard, indicating its refractory properties. It contains about 58 per cent alumina. Inferior quality and red clay are also present below the white china clay.

Good quality china clay has recently been discovered near Shah Dheri in Swat. Detailed investigations are under way.

GLASS SAND

Geological reconnaissance of the area along the foot of Bhatera hills, south-west of Fenchuganj, has revealed lenticular deposits of glass sand. Some of the lenses are of significant dimensions and can be worked economically. A deposit of good quality silica sand has been located at Mirzapur village in Chittagong district, in isolated pockets of the foothill regions. Its thickness ranges from $1\frac{1}{4}$ feet to $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The deposits cover an area of about 4 square miles.

In the western wing glass sand occurs at Kach, near Ziarat. About 25 thousand tons of glass sand are available on the Jangshahi-Thatta road. Other occurrences are in Unt Palang Range, Dadu district, Chunda and Paniala in D. I. Khan district.

A potential deposit occurs near Manda Kucha in Hazara district.

RADIO-ACTIVE SAND

Placer concentrations of heavy minerals are present in the sands along the ocean beach at Cox's Bazar. The placers are radio-active and include substantial amounts of zircon and small amounts of monazite. A helicopter survey along the beach from Chittagong to the Naf river along Pak-Burmese border discovered ten sizeable placers along the beach as well as along the offshore islands of Kutubdia, Maheshkhali, Sonadia and St. Martins Island. The reserves of heavy minerals in the placers examined around Cox's Bazar are estimated to be 487,000 tons of sand containing 10 per cent heavy minerals, 163,000 tons of sand containing 20 per cent heavy minerals, and tons of sand 6,300 containing 30 per cent heavy minerals. The average proportion of magnetite in the sand is only 8 per cent of the heavy minerals, but magnetite is locally abundant in certain small lenses. Work on the entire beach is in progress.

BARYTES

Uranium mineralisation was found in the sandstone in Dera Ghazi Khan District but no commercial reserves have yet been proved.

Recently a promising find has been made of pegmatites in Gilgit. A large deposit of barytes has been found at Gungao near Khuzdar. Reserves of the exposed mineral are estimated to be about 1.4 million tons. It is likely that a greater quantity of the mineral is present at a greater depth. Another deposit of barytes has been found near Kohala in Hazara district. The reserves here are estimated to be about 150,000 tons. Barytes is at present being imported mainly for use in oil drilling. As the newly discovered deposits of barytes are developed, the import of this mineral will diminish.

TABLE 23

PRODUCTION OF MINERALS

	Mineral	Unit	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965[b]
1.	Antimony	Tons	152	89	10	95	15	155	186
2.	Aragonite	,,	2,796	5,245	4,921	2,223[a]	7,174	9,736	5,432
3.	Bentonite	,,	—	579	967	293	253	288	—
4.	Celestite	,,	664	1,332	412	288	379	265	160
5.	Chromite	Thousand tons	16	18	25	21	14	13	14
6.	Coal	,, ,,	723	818	906	979	1,223	1,195	1,448
7.	Dolomite	Tons	—	151	346	509	648	708	416
8.	Fireclay	Thousand tons	14	16	16	10	35	17	18
9.	Fuller's earth	,, ,,	—	1.0	9.5	8.9	12.8	6.8	11.5
10.	Gypsum	,, ,,	97	90	100	179	195	192	169
11.	Iron ore	Tons	2,250	5,421	3,804	—	67	4,824	21,852
12.	Limestone	Thousand tons	927	1,073	1,197	1,154	1,429	1,901	1,898
13.	Lead ore	Tons	331	17	62	112	72	22	20
14.	Magnetite	,,	396	434	160	300	864	607	440
15.	Manganese	,,	29	292	—	925	1,387	980	500
16.	Rock salt	Thousand tons	157	181	198	192	239	194	266
17.	Silica sand	,, ,,	22	26	13	17	23	26	28
18.	Soapstone	Tons	2,340	3,370	1,215	1,102	1,840	2,519	3,086
19.	Barytes	,,	508	633	110	2,595	4,835	11,817	7,100
20.	Crude oil	Million Imperial Gallons	82	92	99	117	123	131	138
21.	Natural gas (consumption)	Million cubic feet	22,365	29,824	34,665	42,076	49,459	59,100	72,000

Source: *Central Statistical Office*

— Nil or insignificant.

[a] From 1962 onward the figures of aragonite included those of ordinary marble also.

[b] Production figures for the year 1965, except for natural gas and crude petroleum, are provisional.

11. TRADE AND COMMERCE

FOREIGN TRADE. Background.
Pattern of Foreign Trade. Value; Composition; Geographical Distribution.

Government Promotion and Regulation of Foreign Trade. Import Policy; Export Promotion Measures; Commodity Policy.
International Trade Relations. GATT; Kennedy Round; Commonwealth Preferences; European Common Market; RCD; ECAFE; Agreements; Trade Delegations; Enemy Property.

Balance of Payments

INTERNAL TRADE AND ORGANISATION
Inter-zonal Trade. Pattern; Trend; Composition; Value.
Internal Prices.

Trade Organizations. Accountancy. Company Law.

FOREIGN TRADE

On Independence Pakistan found her foreign trade circumscribed in two ways. First, the bulk of this trade was dependent on a single country—India. With no industries and known mineral resources coming to her share, Pakistan had to continue to import most of these from that country, and in return the latter continued as the main market for this country's raw jute and cotton. Second, Pakistan's exports entirely comprised raw materials, and those mainly two—jute and cotton.

Sound economics demanded diversification in both respects, and it became imperative very early, on account of two factors. First was the imposition by India of high export duties on her goods after the end of the initial 7½ month Standstill Agreement*; second was that country's non-acceptance of the new par value of Pakistan's currency after she had devalued her own following devaluation of Sterling in September 1949. Diversification in the second respect took a longer time to begin. It was especially speeded up during the Second and now into the Third Plan for economic development.

*Due to the peculiar domestic nature of Pakistan-India trade, the two countries entered into an agreement in August, 1947, so that unrestricted trade might prevail while the two adjust themselves to the new circumstances

The import policy of early years took shape according to the needs of the moment. At first, the restrictive policy of the World War and post-War period had to be revised in view of the acute shortage of consumer goods facing the new country. This shortage was further accentuated by India's actions just noted. Imports were greatly liberalised and a wide range of goods placed on open general licence (OGL). Shortly afterwards, after deciding not to devalue her currency, Pakistan suspended the OGL and otherwise restricted imports. As trends of trade improved, the policy was again liberalised in June 1950. The Korean War broke out next month and exports increased even further. After the war, the recession set in. Exports and export prices fell but imports, with the liberal import policy unchanged, maintained their level. Not until August 1952 was the OGL curtailed: it was entirely suspended three months later. In following years although the domestic economy improved the balance of payments position deteriorated.

In July 1955 the decision was taken to devalue the rupee to stimulate exports, both of raw material and manufactured goods now being produced. During the next twelve months exports increased by over 52 per cent. Thereafter they began to decline and continued so till the end of the fifties.

The adverse trend of foreign trade has not changed so far in view of import requirements for growing development activity, but with manufacturing range and capacity enhanced and a new emphasis placed on exports, the picture is beginning to change.

PATTERN OF TRADE

Value

Imports have so far continued to outstrip exports on account of Government's liberal policy for imports of capital goods, spare parts, and industrial raw materials. Consumer goods are also imported to meet demand and to check inflationary pressure. However, imports during 1965-66 stood at Rs 4,208.3 million, representing a decline of 21.69 per cent over the preceding year; but this was mainly due to the suspension of foreign aid.

Exports have been rising sharply since 1961. During 1962-63 the increase was nearly 22 per cent over the previous year; now during 1965-66, at Rs 2,717.7 million, they are over 44 per cent higher than the preceding year's. The target of Rs 5,000 for 1966-67 will be a record rise since the Korean boom and is actually the figure the Third Plan had set for 1970. The target of the Second Plan (1960-65) had also been similarly exceeded: as against the expected rise over the five-year period of 15 per cent, the actual rise was 32.8 per cent.

Composition

Imports

The pace of development is bringing about changes in the pattern of imports. Consumer goods are being replaced by capital goods and industrial raw material. A new item, food, also entered the list on account of varying shortages since 1952. On the whole, however, the condition reflects, especially through the sixties, increasing acquirement of development goods and the sacrifice of non-essential

consumer goods.

Machinery is first among imports and accounts for over one-fifth of the total. The items imported are usually for setting up new factories or extending or modernising existing ones. A large proportion comes in the account of aid given by different countries.

Metals and Manufactures include iron and steel and non-ferrous metals. They constituted nearly 15 per cent of the imports during 1965-66, and over 18 per cent during the preceding year. The demand has been increasing markedly, indicating the rising capacity of the industry to absorb items requiring complicated fabrication. The imports of steel, for instance, shot up from 340,000 tons in 1959-60 to 830,000 tons by 1963-64. The requirement by 1970 is expected to be 1½ million tons, of which only a part will be met by the newly set up mill at Chittagong.

Transport Equipment forms over 10 per cent of the imports, indicating the economic development and urbanisation currently underway. While needs will keep increasing, imports are not likely to rise much further on account of the heavy machinery complex now in hand during the Third Plan and others that are to come.

Apparatus and appliances mostly consist of electrical goods that formed 7 per cent of the imports during 1965-66. The dependence on imports is likely to decrease with the development planned in the light electrical industry in the private sector, and the heavy industry in the government financed sector during the Third Plan.

Fuels constitute another big item. The import of petroleum increased from Rs 75 million in 1954-55 to Rs 404 million in 1963-64: this was in spite of replacement of fuel oil by natural gas equivalent to nearly 3½ million tons between 1955 to 1963. The demand is continually increasing and will, according to one estimate, reach 30,298,000 barrels by 1975. The import of coal rose to Rs 42 million in 1963-64. The 1975 need, according to the same estimate, will be of the order of 4.8 million tons. The Karachi Refinery recently established is expected to save 30 to 40 million rupees a year in oil imports, and also earn some foreign exchange.

Foodgrain formed the biggest import item during 1957 to 1961, a part of it under the US surplus disposal programme (Public Law 480). Since then the volume has declined but it is still high: the value imported in 1965-66 formed 11 per cent of the total imports. With the Third Plan aiming to move as near self-sufficiency as possible, food imports should continue to decline.

Development imports formed 61 per cent of the total during the Second Plan, and will form 63 per cent during the Third. Although consumer goods will claim 76 per cent of the increase in GNP during the Third Plan, their share of the increase in imports will be only 36 per cent.

As noted, imports of foodgrains have also had to be on the increase. The figures since 1962-63 are as follows:

1962-63	..	Rs 387.6 million
1963-64	..	Rs 573.1 million
1964-65	..	Rs 680.3 million
1965-66 (July-March)		Rs 365.2 million

TABLE 24

STRUCTURE OF IMPORTS

Million rupees
(% of total in brackets)

Year	Total	Capital Goods	Industrial Raw material	Consumer Goods
1959	1,681.0	337.9 (20.1)	382.0 (22.7)	960.8 (57.1)
1960	3,112.0	634.4 (20.4)	680.3 (21.9)	1,797.3 (57.7)
1961	3,056.3	631.0 (20.7)	1,217.6 (39.8)	1,207.7 (39.5)
1962	3,514.7	1,113.2 (31.7)	1,248.0 (35.5)	1,153.5 (32.8)
1963	4,231.8	1,140.1 (26.9)	1,416.1 (33.5)	1,675.6 (39.6)
1964	4,749.7	1,454.7 (30.6)	1,565.0 (33.0)	1,730.0 (36.4)
1965	4,967.0	1,884.6 (37.9)	1,575.8 (31.7)	1,506.6 (30.3)

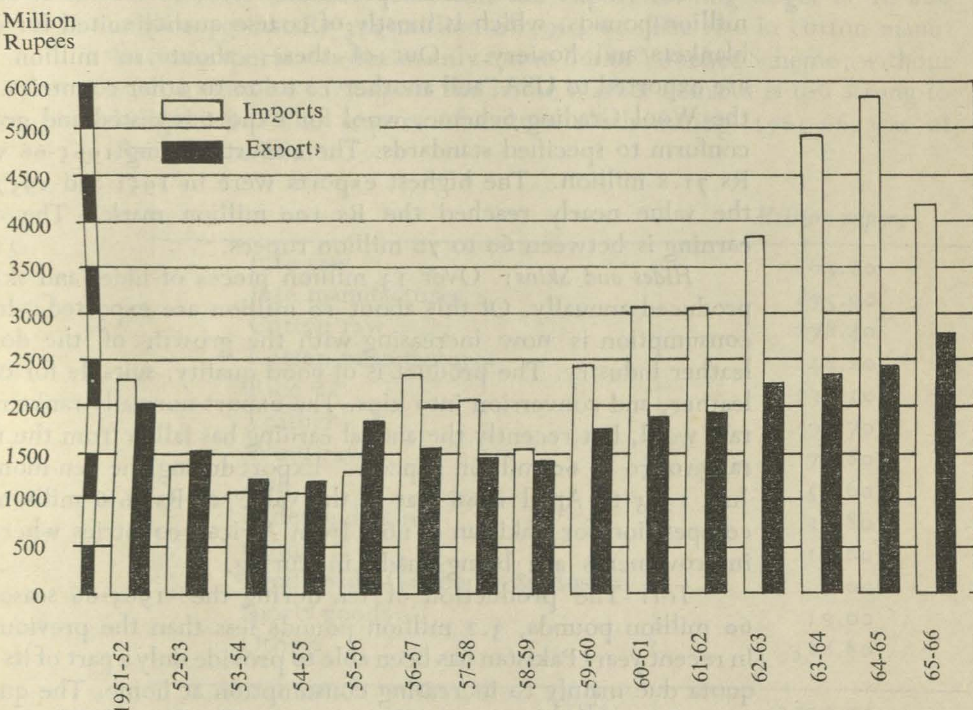
Source: *Economic Survey 1965-66.*

Exports Pakistan's major exports fall into two categories: primary products and manufactures. The first still make up much the bigger half, and of these jute and cotton contribute nearly three-quarters of the value. Among the rest are hides and skin, raw wool, tea, rice, fish and a few other minor products. Manufactures include cotton, jute, leather and other less important items.

Raw Jute: At Independence Pakistan commanded about 75 per cent of the total world production of jute. Now, with India in competition, the percentage has come to about 50, though she still retains a virtual monopoly of the best variety. Whereas nearly all jute was exported in the early years, domestic manufacturing capacity now absorbs 40 per cent of the total production, whose exports make up a part of the loss of Indian market. The demand for raw jute has proved elastic beyond a certain price range only so long as jute is reasonably cheap packing material, and in adequate and regular supply. During 1965-66 the area under jute was 2.09 million acres and production amounted to 6.36 million bales. The target for 1970 is 8 million bales. The important buyers now are the USA, the UK, France, West Germany and Belgium.

Raw Cotton: The quantity of raw cotton produced in Pakistan forms 5 per cent of the world production. The total earnings from export of raw cotton during the Second Plan period was Rs 1,533 million—Rs 133 million in excess of the target. Its exports since 1962-63 has been between 850 and 950 thousand tons, following larger production. During 1965-66, the production was 2.347

FOREIGN TRADE OF PAKISTAN



Source: *Central Statistical Office*

million bales. The export during the year was valued at Rs 286.3 million, which was a decline from the previous year due to lower export prices. The export of cotton is greatly influenced by the world supply and demand position, particularly by production in USA. In recent years the United States have been disposing of surplus stocks at subsidised prices, which has narrowed down the market for Pakistan. The general depression in textile industry further adds to this situation. A third factor contributing to the recent decline is the increasing consumption in home industry. The highest export of cotton was 137.2 million bales, in 1950-51, when the American crop had failed by 6 million bales, and the world demand was boosted up by the Korean war.

Raw Wool: The annual production of wool stands at about 36 million pounds, which is mostly of coarse quality suited for carpets, blankets and hosiery. Out of these, about 10 million pounds are exported to USA, and another 10 to 20 to other countries. Under the Wool Grading Scheme, wool for export is tested and graded to conform to specified standards. The exports during 1965-66 were of Rs 71.8 million. The highest exports were in 1951 and 1957 when the value nearly reached the Rs 100 million mark. The average earning is between 60 to 70 million rupees.

Hides and Skins: Over 13 million pieces of hides and skins are produced annually. Of this about 10 million are exported. Internal consumption is now increasing with the growth of the domestic leather industry. The product is of good quality, suitable for chrome leather, and conversion into kips. The export normally ranks next to raw wool, but recently the annual earning has fallen from the normal range of 50 to 60 million rupees. Export during the ten months for July 1965 to April 1966 was of the value of Rs 26.6 million. Main competition for Pakistan is now from African countries where great improvements are being made in curing.

Tea: The production of tea during the 1965-66 season was 60 million pounds, 3.2 million pounds less than the previous year. In recent years Pakistan has been able to provide only a part of its export quota due mainly to increasing consumption at home. The quota for 1965-66 was fixed at 7.4 million pounds. The United Kingdom takes about 90 per cent of the country's exports. During 1966-67 export to Afghanistan was allowed upto one million pounds.

Fish: Fish exports have risen rapidly in recent years, and a small part of the overfulfilment of the export target of the Second Plan was due to this. By 1970, the exports are expected to reach the target of 150 million rupees from the present Rs 95 million.

Rice : Rice has become another important although still minor item of export. There was a marked rise in its production during the Second Plan leading to an unexpected increase in its export. The earnings have ranged between 100 to 150 million rupees. The figure for 1965-66 was Rs 132.5 million. The target for 1970 is Rs 250 million. Originally export was done on government account, but

in 1959-60 it was returned to private hands, although internal procurement is still done by the government.

Manufactures : Among the manufactures exported the most important are jute and cotton goods. First started in 1953-54, their export has sharply increased through the sixties. The export of manufactures in 1964-65 stood at Rs 830 million, or about 34 per cent of the total exports. In 1965-66 the figure was Rs 1,231.8 million or over 35.5 per cent of the total. For 1966-67 the target is 2,330 million out of a total export of Rs 5,000 million i.e. to raise it to over 46 per cent of the total. Jute manufactures are now second only to raw jute in export value. The production during 1965-66 was 422,000 tons, and export 340,000 tons. The production target for 1970 is 920,000 tons, and the export earning target is Rs 800 million against Rs 320 million of 1964-65. The rise in cotton manufacture exports was due mainly to the Bonus Voucher Scheme; without such a stimulus for export the home market demand is too strong to be ignored. The export of cotton cloth during 1965-66 was of Rs 142.7 million.

TABLE 25

EXPORTS DURING JULY-JUNE 1965-66

Million rupees

Jute raw ..	863.20
Jute manufactures	575.90
Cotton raw ..	278.40
Cotton manufactures	244.20
Rice	132.50
Leather	99.70
Wool raw	71.80
Fish	51.60
Hides and skins	30.80
Gum	14.80
Readymade Garments & Hosiery	7.00
Sports goods	19.00
Others	328.80
TOTAL	2717.70

Source: *Ministry of Commerce.*

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION

As noted, Pakistan's trade at the beginning was confined for the most part to India. Even until devaluation in September, 1949 the volume was over 60 per cent. Since then it began to diversify, and in addition to United Kingdom soon covered other West European countries, USA and Japan. In recent years it has expanded to the socialist bloc and an increasing number of Latin American and African countries. Trade with socialist countries rose from Rs 389.4 million in 1963-64 to Rs 531.0 million in 1964-65 and has increased to Rs 550 million in 1965-66. Manufactured goods are figuring more prominently in exports. The re-opening after nearly 50 years of the

historic route between West Pakistan and Central Asia through Afghanistan will lead to a further strengthening of trade ties with them.

Imports

Recently imports have been influenced considerably by the increasing proportion of the tied loans contracted during the Second Plan period. The share of the dollar area increased from 26 per cent in 1960-61 to 46 per cent in 1964-65 at the cost of imports from sterling area. Imports from the UK remained more or less stable, but those from Asian countries, barring Japan, declined considerably. They also declined from West European countries, barring Germany. The socialist countries gained somewhat, but in aggregate they are still less than 5 per cent of the total.

India : From over 60 per cent up to 1948-49, the imports from India fell to 4 per cent in 1955-56 and remained near there until her attack on Pakistan in September 1965.

United Kingdom : The UK has provided 20 to 30 per cent of Pakistan's needs, and once (1954-55) even became the largest supplier. Since then it occupies the second position.

U.S.A. : The country with the largest trade with Pakistan for several years is the USA, by virtue of Pakistan's need for foodgrains since 1954. Its share of Pakistan's total imports was 8 per cent in 1948-49, 13 per cent in 1955-56, and 34.43 per cent in 1965-66.

Japan : Japan began at 1.2 per cent in 1948-49 but rose to nearly 25 per cent in 1951-52, which was its peak. In 1955-56 her share was 14.4, coming after the UK and the USA.

West Germany : With nil at the start it brought its supplies to 9 per cent of Pakistan's need in 1961-62, and now it is 11.51 per cent in 1965-66.

Other countries: The share of other countries was 16 per cent at Independence, now it is about 25 per cent, indicating the great diversification that has taken place since then.

A similar diversification is visible in the country's exports.

Exports

India: Again in 1948-49, 60 per cent of Pakistan's exports went to India. It dropped to 3.4 per cent in 1958, rallied just a little after that before the end came in September 1965.

Japan : Japan started in 1948-49 by taking only 2.6 per cent of Pakistan's exports. This rose to 19.1 per cent in 1952-53, which was its peak, and it now stands at 5.05 per cent in 1965-66.

United Kingdom: From her position as number two at independence, the United Kingdom is now the largest importer from Pakistan. Her share was 21.4 per cent of the total in 1954-55, 19.8 per cent in 1958, 14.2 per cent in 1961 and 12.68 per cent in 1964-65 and 13.04 per cent in 1965-66.

Eastern Europe : In the past, the East European countries were mainly buying Pakistan's primary commodities. Recently several bilateral arrangements have been concluded with them, whereby 50

per cent of exports from Pakistan have comprised primary commodities and fifty per cent manufactured goods, in return for essential raw material, machinery, equipment and spares. During the period July 1965 to June 1966 the programme of exports to East European countries included exports of textiles worth about Rs 44 million, which represented over 12 per cent of this country's export target for textiles during that period. Basmati rice was another major commodity introduced in East European market in a big way. By December 1966 it is expected to fetch Rs 100 million from these countries.

TABLE 26

EXPORT BY COUNTRIES 1965-66

Countries	% of Total
U.K.	13.04
U.S.A.	10.81
Belgium	5.75
People's China	5.70
Japan	5.05
Hong Kong	4.06
West Germany	3.76
France	3.86
Australia	2.98
USSR	2.90
Indonesia	2.12
Kuwait	1.13
Italy	2.16

Source: *Ministry of Commerce.*

GOVERNMENT PROMOTION & REGULATION OF TRADE

Foreign trade, as well as internal, is almost entirely in private hands. Government takes measures wherever and in whatever way feasible to help promote it on healthy and nationally desirable lines. For imports, licensing policies are now annually announced, and exports are promoted through various concessions and incentives in desired directions. Measures are taken to facilitate production of goods that can give competition both as to quality and price. Internationally, grounds are continually explored for bilateral or multilateral collaboration in trade and economic fields on mutually beneficial terms. Sending of trade delegations, participation in international fairs, and such other activities form part of this process.

In the efforts for expansion and diversification of foreign trade special attention has been paid to development of trade with the socialist countries. As these countries prefer to trade on a balanced basis, a number of bilateral payment arrangements were concluded with them. Details of these arrangements are given in the table on page 263.

The special payment arrangements, which were in addition to normal trade with the countries concerned, have greatly helped to broaden and diversify both our exports and imports. The volume of trade between Pakistan and East European countries rose from Rs 172 million in 1963-64 to Rs 254 million in 1964-65 and to Rs 364 million in 1965-66.

IMPORT POLICY

After more than a decade of rigid import controls a process was initiated in 1963-64 of gradually withdrawing the licensing controls from essential items of import. Accordingly, the number of items placed on the Free (Import) List was raised from one in July 1963 to 4 in January-June 1964 and to 51, covering a wide range of essential raw materials and consumer goods, during July-December 1964. A large segment of the economy was thus freed from licensing. But it was noticed that in many cases the importers had gone in for apparently excessive or speculative imports. There were also indications of building up of unwarranted inventories by industrial consumers. Therefore, in the second half of 1964-65 Government made certain procedural changes in the Free (Import) System in order to make the policy more realistic.

As a result of the liberalization programme, there has been an overall reduction in the prices of iron and steel, drugs and medicines, chemicals, auto-spares, and industrial raw-materials, leading to a marked increased in the rate of investment and industrial output. A recent survey of 68 industries revealed that the utilization of their capacity had gone up as a result of import liberalization from an average level of 50 per cent to about 85 per cent. Many newcomers have entered the trade and the hold of 'category' importers has been loosened, thus making for healthier distribution arrangements.

The objectives and important features of the import policy are described below:

(1) fuller utilisation of industrial capacity;
(2) broadening and strengthening the base of export industries so as to lend greater competitive ability to the export of manufactured goods;
(3) progressive substitution of imports by local products;
(4) improving supplies through commercial channels of such goods of industrial and consumer interest as are not produced in the country or are in short supply;
(5) stabilization of prices at reasonable levels; and
(6) improvement in the economic conditions of the backward areas.

These objectives have been sought from 1959 onwards by pursuing a policy of gradual liberalization of imports.

Import Liberalization

Table 27 shows how imports into the country have gone up since 1958-59:

This sharp increase in imports is mainly attributable to a conscious liberalisation programme.

An integral constituent of the import liberalisation effort has been the policy to remove or relax administrative control on imports, so that by 1964-65, as much as 70 per cent of imports in the private sector had become virtually free from administrative controls.

TABLE 27
RISE IN IMPORTS

	Value million Rupees
1958-59	1,578.4
1959-60	2,460.9
1960-61	3,187.6
1961-62	3,109.0
1962-63	3,818.7
1963-64	4,430.1
1964-65	5,374.2

The set-back that this liberal trend received during 1965-66 was due to well-known reasons. However, during 1966-67 the same liberal trend is expected.

TABLE 28
RELAXATION OF CONTROL ON IMPORTS

	Imports subject to licensing (% of total)	Imports virtually freed from licensing/ import controls (% of total)
1958-59	100	—
1959-60	84	16
1960-61	65	35
1961-62	40	60
1962-63	33	67
1963-64	32	68
1964-65	30	70
1965-66	45	55
1966-67	35	65

Free List

In the Import Policy for 1966-67, as many as 66 items were placed on the Free List as against only 31 during the preceding shipping period (January-June 1966). Almost all the essential industrial raw materials and tools and spares, like iron and steel, non-ferrous metals, tools and workshop equipment, chemicals, dyes, dyeing and tanning substances, pigments and dry colours, etc., are now on the Free List. The new items added to the Free List for the first time are—

(1) Instruments for scientific research and experiment.
(2) X-ray and ECG equipment.
(3) Asbestos fibre.
(4) Road rollers.
(5) Drilling rigs.
(6) Vegetable and flower seeds.
(7) Tea seed.

The import of the Free List items is expected to enable the industries to maximise their production with a view to feeding not only the domestic but also the foreign market.

Suitable administrative checks and balances have been incorporated in the Import Policy to ensure that no speculative and excessive

imports take place and that the imports flow at reasonable levels and even pace throughout the year.

Proper safeguards have also been provided to ensure that the small importers enjoy full freedom to operate under the Free List unhampered by bigger importers.

O. G. L. List

During the shipping period January-June 1966, the OGL List consisted of only 11 items. The main feature that distinguished this List from the Licensable List was that import could be repeated subject to the fulfilment of certain conditions. In order to simplify the import procedures, the OGL List has been merged partly with the Free List and partly with the Licensable List. Some of the important items transferred from this List to the Free List are: out-board engines, plants, vegetable and flower seeds; gelatine capsules. To make up for the loss of repeat facility, it has been decided that the licensing of essential items like drugs and medicines, books, typewriters and office machines, will be done on a liberal scale so as to ensure adequate supplies.

Licensable List

The Licensable List for 1966-67 consists of 96 items. It mainly contains essential industrial raw materials or essential consumer goods.

The new policy also provides that licences for 25 items on the Licensable List shall be issued to commercial importers at flat rates. This step has been taken in order to scale down the limits of licences which big category holders were entitled to receive under the previous policies.

Bonus Import List

Certain noteworthy items added to the Bonus Import List are: G. I. pipes and iron and steel tubing upto 3 inches diameter, metal scrap, iron and steel baling hoops of certain specifications, camphor, valves for iron and steel pipes and tubes, textile looms of specified types and un-serviceable old ships.

As many as 258 industries are now eligible to receive normal licences for such items of their requirements as are not covered by the Free List. These industries fall into two categories:

(1) export oriented/defence oriented/agricultural development oriented high priority industries;

(2) industries enjoying comparatively lower priority.

148 of these industries which belong to the first category will be eligible to receive initial licences at 100 per cent of entitlement, repeatable on production of prescribed shipping documents, while 110 industries which belong to the second category, would be eligible to receive licences on a specific basis. This facility coupled with imports under the Free List should enable the industries to work to optimum levels.

Additionally, these industries have been allowed to import their requirements on bonus as well.

A small segment of the industrial sector consisting of such indus-

tries as are not covered by the aforesaid two categories, has been retained on bonus exclusively. These industries are, however, entitled to import Free List items without being called upon to surrender bonus vouchers.

Further more, the industries can supplement their stocks of raw materials importable under the Free List or the Licensable List, by effecting imports, should they so choose, under the Bonus Import List as well, without any upper limit.

Similarly with a view to facilitating industrial production, industrial items whose import is tied to specific sources under credit/barter arrangements can also be imported under bonus. To enable the industrial units to be balanced and modernised with a view to improving their efficiency, it has been decided that the import of balancing, modernisation and replacement machinery shall be permitted freely under Bonus Vouchers, if necessary provision exists in the Industrial Investment Schedule.

Export Performance Licensing

The policy regarding issue of special licences against export performance upto 50 per cent of the f.o.b. value of exports has remained unchanged.

East Wing Trade Movement of Free List/Bonus List Goods

In view of the demand of trade for removal/relaxation of the restriction on inter-wing movement of imported goods, it has been decided that there shall be no restriction on the inter-wing movement of such goods as are importable into both the wings under the Free List/Bonus Import List.

Special Provisions for East Pakistan

The import policy caters to the special requirements of East Pakistan in the matter of imported goods. There are 20 items which can only be imported in that wing.

Importers in East Pakistan/West Pakistan

Since 1959-66, the list of registered importers in the country has been constantly expanded.

	1959-60	1964-65
East Pakistan	7,037	22,500
West Pakistan ..	8,731	24,500

The per cent increase in East Pakistan has been of the order of 319 while in West Pakistan it was of the order of 280. The higher percentage increase in East Pakistan was in line with the policy to level up the two wings economically.

Trade Diversification

As noted, during the last few years special attention has been paid to the development of trade with countries having centrally planned economies. This has helped in finding new suppliers of Pakistan imports and new markets for her exports. The imports from countries having centrally planned economies and Indonesia went up from about 80 million in 1960-61 to about Rs 280 million in 1965-66. This represented an increase of about 250 per cent over six

years. The increase was even more pronounced in the case of imports from China which rose from Rs 15.5 million in 1960-61 to Rs 96.8 million in 1964-65.

Protection to Indigenous Industry

Government accepts the need for protecting nascent industries against outside competition, but a claim for protection is closely scrutinized by a tariff commission and after it is given for a fixed period its performance is watched. As a Government statement conceding need for selective protection noted: "Tariffs are not crutches.. the assumption made by any government when it grants protection to a new industry should be that....the industry is likely to be able to dispense with the necessity of protection within a reasonable period.." So far the number of industries given protection was 88, of which 45 were at different times de-protected.

During the period July 1965 to June 1966, the Tariff Commission submitted their inquiry reports on the following 15 industries for grant of protection:

- Aluminium sheets
- Glue
- Sodium hydrosulphite
- Sand paper, emery paper and emery cloth
- Spark plugs
- Iron & steel/brass wood screws
- Dry cells and batteries
- Oil circuit breakers
- Sodium bichromate and basic chromium sulphate
- Dumping by foreign suppliers
- Equalization of prices in East and West Pakistan by indigenous industry located in one province on sales in the other province (interim)
- Laminated plastics sheet
- Alkatra (price trends)
- Dry cells and batteries (supplementary)
- Penicillin

During the same period, the Government announced their decisions for grant of protection to the following 29 industries:

- Caustic soda
- Arc welding electrodes
- Baling hoops (interim)
- Aluminium sheets
- Incandescent electric lamps
- Wire nails
- Safety razor blades
- Sheet & plate glass
- Asbestos cement sheets
- Electricity meters
- Drugs & pharmaceuticals
- Penicillin G sodium
- Alkatra
- Steel balls for cement industry
- Umbrella fittings
- Grinding wheels
- Beltings
- Hydrogen peroxide
- Textile power looms
- G. I. pipes
- Beer
- Spark plug
- Sand paper, emery paper and emery cloth
- Sodium hydrosulphite
- Glue
- Oil circuit breakers
- Nylon monofilament
- Iron and steel/brass wood screws
- Sodium bichromate and basic chromium sulphate

Export Promotion

Export Bonus Scheme

The Export Bonus Scheme was introduced in January 1959, with the object of promoting the country's exports by means of a bonus on export earnings. The scheme covers all items except the traditional primary exports, viz. raw jute, raw cotton, raw wool, hides and skins, tea and some varieties of rice; some service industries are also entitled to the bonus on their net foreign exchange earnings. Bonus vouchers thus earned can be converted into licenses to import any one or more items specified, which are wide-ranging (263) and include consumer goods, industrial raw material and capital goods. The vouchers can be traded freely and are quoted on the stock exchange commanding a high premium.

Previously, there was a multiplicity of bonus rates ranging from 10 per cent to 40 per cent, which caused unnecessary inconvenience both to the government and to exporters. From June 1964, the number of rates was reduced from 7 to 2, 20 per cent or 30 per cent and in this form the scheme was extended into the Third Five-Year Plan, but designed to taper off as exports become more and more competitive.

The import of big cars against bonus voucher has been stopped altogether and new motor cars of landed cost not exceeding Rs 11,000 alone are permitted to be imported. Recognised industrial units in the jute and cotton textile industries have been made eligible to import jute looms and cotton looms respectively for the purpose of balancing, modernization and replacement. In addition, they are allowed to import freely against bonus vouchers such accessories and complementary machinery as might be required for that purpose.

In November 1965, it was decided to allow additional bonus at the rate of 10 per cent on the export of cotton cloth (mill-made), sports goods, surgical instruments and cutlery, upto the end of June 1966, subject to the condition that additional bonus on cotton cloth would be available only on exports above the global quota of 240 million square yards fixed for 1965-66. Later the period of admissibility of the additional bonus on the export of sports goods, surgical instruments and cutlery was extended upto the end of 1966.

It was decided to include 'Lighterage Work' as a service industry qualifying for bonus at 20 per cent under the Scheme.

Bonus earnings, i.e. share of foreign exchange which accrued to the exporters during 1965, stood at Rs 248.3 million against Rs 240.5 million in 1964. The net foreign exchange earnings of the country under this scheme stood at Rs 859 million during the period as against Rs 753 million during 1964, an increase of Rs 106 million or about 15 per cent.

Export Credit Guarantee Scheme

An Export Credit Guarantee Scheme was introduced in March, 1962 to protect exporters against certain financial risks, not normally covered by insurance in realising the sale proceeds of their goods from foreign buyers. Under it exporters can ensure their entire annual exports to any market. However, the Pakistan Insurance Corporation, the agency for this scheme, covers only 75 per cent of the loss for

commercial risks and 85 per cent for political risks. The exporter is made to bear a part of the risk just in order that he should take due care in the selection of the buyer and, later, all necessary measures to collect his dues.

An export finance policy has also been introduced by the Corporation. It now underwrites business which is in the national interest. The life of this scheme, due to expire in May 1965, has been extended upto June 1970. Its working capital has been raised from Rs 1.5 million to Rs 4.0 million. Some of the important changes that were introduced in 1965-66 are:

(*a*) Underwriting business in the national interest;
(*b*) Inclusion of raw wool and jute manufacturers within its purview;
(*c*) Appointment of special agents to promote the scheme;
(*d*) Introduction of a short-term selected market policy; and
(*e*) Introduction of an export finance policy.

Exports under the Pakistan-Indonesia trade agreement, providing for payment on one year deferred terms have been given E.C.G.S. cover. A premium of Rs 727,000 has been collected on this account and the liability assumed is of Rs 29.1 million.

In the normal export sector 133 proposals were received in 1965 for the guarantee compared with 151 during 1964. The numbers of policies issued and in force during 1965 were respectively 121 and 174 as compared to 123 and 126 for 1964. The face value and maximum liability assumed under these policies increased, reflecting a rise in the volume of business.

The Export Promotion Bureau

An Export Promotion Bureau was set up in 1963. Its main functions are:

(*a*) to co-ordinate with the Pakistan Standards Institution matters relating to the prescription of standards, and adoption of measures to ensure that goods exported conform to the prescribed standard;
(*b*) to determine targets of export of various goods and adopt measures for attaining them;
(*c*) to make recommendations to the appropriate agencies, central or provincial, for increasing the export potential of existing industries, and for setting up new export-oriented industries;
(*d*) to conduct studies and make recommendations for removing impediments to foreign trade, such as tariffs, import quotas and internal taxes, and assist in conducting negotiations for international trade agreements.
(*e*) to study the impact of economic and monetary policies on export trade and make recommendations thereon;
(*f*) to collect and compile data regarding production of exportable commodities, to undertake country-wise and commodity-wise export studies and provide commercial

intelligence to the business community;

(*g*) to organize exhibitions at home and abroad and participate in international trade fairs and to initiate proposals for sending and receiving trade delegations; and

(*h*) to study export promotion measures adopted by other countries with conditions similar to those of Pakistan.

Apart from these, there are such subsidiary activities as recommendations for further inclusion of any item in the Export Bonus Scheme, recommendations to the inland freight rates committee to grant freight reductions on items for export, recommendations on the issue of import licences, on obtaining the services of foreign experts for any industry, and so on.

Export Promotion Council

The Export Promotion Council was set up in March 1964, in consultation with the Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry. It comprises official and non-official members, the former from the Export Promotion Bureau and the latter from business and trade circles, either nominated or co-opted. The term of office of the nominated unofficial members is two years and of co-opted members the period for which they are co-opted. The Council's purpose is to advise the Bureau on policies and measures necessary for the expansion of Pakistan's earnings from exports of goods and services and to assist the Bureau in implementing the policies and measures decided upon. The Council has several Export Promotion Committees each relating to an important item of export, and each collaborating with the Bureau in handling problems affecting the development of export of that item. The Council as a whole deals with major issues of policy and with matters referred to it by any committee. The council has endorsed Government's plan to attain an export earning of Rs 5,000 million from commodities and services during 1966-67. Accepting the principle that normally every industry in the country has the capacity to export, the Council has recommended practical measures for achieving the target.

Export Market Development Fund

An Export Market Development Fund was set up in January 1966 to assist, through grants-in-aid, the financing of projects relating to market surveys and design improvement; and to help in market development by opening offices and conducting publicity abroad. Exporters will be fed with market information. Consultant and research services in designing, quality control, packaging, and promotion of market research in cooperation with national international organisations are some of the other activities to be undertaken.

The Fund will be directed by a Board of Administrators comprising officials and private individuals, presided over by the Vice-Chairman, Export Promotion Bureau.

Pakistan House International

The Export Promotion Bureau has sponsored Pakistan House International Ltd., a private company, with 10 per cent government

participation.

The Pakistan House International (PHI) will make available to all interested Pakistan traders, a common service agency to assist in expanding their export business. Among other things it will open show-rooms abroad as centres for promoting and selling Pakistani products. In certain cities abroad, it will act as an agency centre for Pakistani exporters and importers. Each overseas centre will contain a first class Pakistani restaurant and an information centre for tourists and businessmen.

The first PHI will be at Hamburg in West Germany, to be followed by such Houses in New York, London and other important cities.

Compulsory Grading

The Government has decided upon a scheme for compulsory standardisation and grading for selected export goods. The scheme will be introduced in successive phases, with advance notice to manufacturers/producers to adjust their production to meet the required specifications. In the first phase of the scheme, introduced from June 1966, the export of certain goods which do not bear the standard mark will be prohibited. These include electric fans, wet batteries, dry cells and batteries, cement and induction motors. Many more items will be included in the second phase. The export of goods bearing the approved standard mark will be permitted without any other restriction. Similar provision for compulsory grading/marking for the export of certain agricultural products will also be introduced.

Design Centres

To advise manufacturers on design, quality, and standards of their products design centres are being established. The work has been entrusted to the Pakistan Council of Industrial Design, a private organization, which has been given a grant-in-aid of Rs 50,000 for a design centre at Karachi. Work on this centre has begun. Another will soon be set up at Dacca.

Export Corporations

Special corporations have lately been set up to promote exports of a number of products. These are in respect of films, sport goods, handicrafts, carpets etc. More such corporations are being set up. The Rice Export Board, set up in September 1965, receives and disposes of tenders from private parties for the export of rice and undertakes export promotion.

Training

Officials and business executives are sent abroad for training in export marketing. In addition short courses in export promotion for business executives are sponsored by the Export Promotion Bureau.

Fairs and Exhibitions

International trade fairs and exhibitions provide an opportunity for introducing home goods to foreign buyers and sellers. Pakistan participates in most of such fairs. The 1965-66 list was as follows:

Izmir Trade Fair, Turkey: Pakistan participated in the 34th International Trade Fair at Izmir from August 20 to September 20, 1965

and the Fair quota of $ 390,000 for export of Pakistani goods to Turkey was largely utilised.

International Frankfurt (Autumn) Fair, West Germany: This Fair was held from August 29 to September 2, 1965. Keen enquiries were made by importers for Pakistani products, particularly handicrafts, surgical goods, carpets, cotton textiles, towels, leather shoes, canned products etc.

New York World Fair 1964-65: The Pakistan Pavilion at the New York World Fair 1964-65 drew over 925,000 visitors upto the end of August 1965. Business worth about Rs 1½ million was finalised at the Pavilion. The Pavilion also attended to 1,237 enquiries relating to trade, travel and tourism. The Fair ended on October 17, 1965.

Jamhuri Park Show, Nairobi: At the show in Nairobi, Pakistan organised, apart from the usual exhibits, a gallery of Pakistan paintings, both of oriental and modern art in a separate section of the Pakistan pavilion. The exhibits and paintings proved very popular.

Export Trade Control

During 1965-66, restrictions on the export of potatoes, chillies, decorticated cotton seed, oil cakes, poultry, chicken, civet cats, wild cats, wild boars, rodents, jackals, porcupines, hyaenas, bats, crows, certain kinds of birds of prey, uromastix, poppy seed, poisonous snakes and cement were withdrawn, and the export of these items was made free. It was also decided to withdraw the restrictions on the export of mill-made cotton piece-goods and ready-made garments with effect from the 1st January 1966. On the other hands in view of its strategic importance, the export of industrial alcohol was restricted. Also in order to feed adequately the freezing plants in East Pakistan, the export of fresh shrimps and prawns was restricted. This measure was designed to boost the export of frozen and tinned shrimps and prawns which would bring in more foreign exchange.

COMMODITY POLICY

Jute Raw

The main object of jute policy is to encourage production of jute to a level that after meeting internal requirements, it can meet the maximum of foreign demand at stable and reasonable prices so as also to ensure a fair return to the growers.

During the year 1965-66 the acreage under jute was 2.09 million acres and production amounted 6.36 million bales. The Third Plan target has been raised to 8 million bales. The policy is not to bring more land under jute but to increase production by increasing the yield through application of fertilizers, improved seeds etc., which will enable the growers to get economic prices.

The salient features of the jute policy for 1965-66 were as follows:

(*a*) No statutory minimum prices at the growers' level were fixed in the beginning, but minimum statutory price of Rs 23.00 per maund for jute of the lowest or X-Bottom grade was fixed on 8th November 1965 with a view to improving growers' prices and halting decline in export prices.

(*b*) It was decided not to reimpose the export minimum prices, but the EPC control was enforced by the State Bank to ensure that there was no under-invoicing of exports.

(*c*) It was decided to set up a Jute Price Stabilisation Fund, as recommended by the Jute Enquiry Commission, by levying a cess of Rs 0.50 per maund on jute which is exported by exporters or consumed by local mills and place it at the disposal of the Jute Board. Accordingly, the cess was imposed with effect from 1st July 1965.

(*d*) It was decided to replace the Buffer Stock Operations through the East Pakistan Jute Marketing Corporation by a system of purchases of baled jute from the dealers and loose jute from the growers through the agencies of shippers, mills and banks. It was further decided to continue the phased purchase scheme and the export quota system.

(*e*) The Jute Board was also authorised to permit export of raw jute on credit upto 8 months in suitable cases.

(*f*) The export of *mesta* was allowed to continue without any restriction.

The above measures had a salutary effect on the market and export of jute during 1965-66 amounted to 4,329,473 bales (provisional estimate), as against 3,839,679 bales during 1964-65. Export of *mesta* during 1965-66, was 116,920 bales (provisional) as against 84,175 bales in the preceding season. The average price received by the growers during the season amounted to Rs 27.39 per maund compared with Rs 31.47 per maund during the previous season.

Jute Manufactures

The production of jute manufactures during 1965-66 amounted to 422,000 tons as against 295,000 tons in 1964-65. Export of jute manufactures during 1965-66 amounted to 340,000 tons as against 230,000 tons in the previous year. The Third Plan target for jute industry is 25,000 ordinary and 2,500 broad looms, to produce 920,000 tons of jute goods. Export earnings are expected to be Rs 800 million by 1970 compared with Rs 320 million in 1964-65.

Cotton Raw

Cotton is the second most valuable crop of the country. In order to make it competitive the export duty on raw cotton was reduced from Rs 20 to Rs 10 per bale in June 1964. The sales tax, which worked out to about Rs 14 per bale, was abolished. Raw cotton is free from export trade control and also from quantitative of destinational restrictions.

There has been some increase in the production of raw cotton during 1965-66. According to the trade estimates, the production was about 2.21 million bales in 1965-66 as against 2.12 million bales during 1964-65 but according to the final estimate published by the Food and Agriculture Division production amounted to 2.347 million bales. During 1965-66 the exports of cotton amounted to Rs 286.3 million as against Rs 330.5 million in the previous year. The fall in

earning was due mainly to lower export prices. However, the growers' prices were maintained at a reasonable level.

Cotton Textiles

The cotton textile industry has made impressive progress. In 1950 the number of spindles and looms was 290,000 and 5,000 respectively. By 1965, the number had risen to 2,700,000 spindles and 36,500 looms. Production of cotton yarn increased from 43 million pounds in 1950 to 505 million pounds in 1965. Similarly the production of cloth increased from 106 million yards in 1950 to 720 million yards in 1965. In the initial years, almost the entire production was consumed locally but exports have developed since 1956. In the case of cloth, exports, increased from 19 million square yards valued at Rs 14 million in 1956 to 194 million square yards valued at Rs 130 million in 1965.

The Third Five Year Plan target for the textile industry is 4 million spindles and 55 thousand looms. The target of cotton yarn is 720 million pounds. After meeting home consumption of 620 million pounds the exportable surplus in 1969-70 is estimated to be of the order of 100 million pounds. The 1969-70 target for cloth production is 1,400 million square yards.

Export Value of Cotton Cloth and Yarn

Export of cotton cloth during 1965-66 stood at 219 million square yards compared with 212 million square yards during 1964-65. The export value was Rs 142.7 million compared to Rs 133.7 million for the previous year. The average export price was 65 paisa per square yards, compared with 63 paisa per square yards realised in the previous year.

The export of cotton yarn during 1965-66 stood at 50.92 million pounds, compared to 73.70 million pounds shipped during 1964-65. The value was Rs 96.5 million compared to Rs 133.4 million of the previous year. The average export price was Rs 1.74 per pound, compared to Rs 1.72 obtained previously. The shortfall in the export of yarn was mainly due to decline in exports to Burma and smaller off-take by Hong Kong and the U.K.

Wool

Annual production of wool is about 36 million pounds, which is mostly of coarse quality suited for carpets, blankets and hosiery. About 5 million pounds of fine wool is imported. Under the Wool Grading Scheme, wool for export is tested and graded to conform to specified standards. Exports during 1965-66 were Rs 71.8 million.

Hides and Skins

Export earnings during the period from July 1965 to April 1966 were Rs 26.6 million. Export earnings from this commodity are being steadily reduced with the development of the local tanning industry and increased export of tanned leather.

Tea

In the 1965-66 tea season (April 1965—March 1966), the production of tea in Pakistan was 60 million pounds as against 63.2 million pounds in 1964-65. As the production was not enough to leave a substantial exportable surplus, no export quota was fixed in

1965-66. However, the supply position eased in the last quarter of 1965, so that a quota of 7.4 million pounds was fixed for export during 1965-66.

With a view to developing trade relations with Afghanistan it was also decided to allow the export of tea upto one million pounds during the 1966-67 tea year, i.e. upto the end March 1967.

A scheme for survey for irrigation of tea gardens in the districts of Sylhet and Chittagong approved by the Executive Committee of the National Economic Council in May 1964 was accorded administrative approval and sanction for expenditure to be incurred in 1965-66 was issued.

An agreement was signed on 2nd September 1965 with two foreign firms appointing them Consultants to undertake survey for irrigation of tea gardens and complete it within 24 months of the date of commencement. They started work in October 1965.

The scheme envisages a survey of the water resources in the tea growing areas in East Pakistan. Separate and self-contained projects will be drawn up for individual tea estates, whereupon the tea estates will install their own machinery for irrigation purposes. This scheme aims at considerable increase in the production of tea in Pakistan.

Minor Commodities

Commodities other than jute, cotton, wool, hides and skins, tea, cotton manufactures and jute manufactures are considered minor commodities but their export makes a sizeable contribution to the total export earnings. Rice is the most important of these commodities and its export during 1965-66 stood at Rs 132.5 million as against Rs 122.7 million in 1964-65. Other important minor commodities are fish, oilcakes, leather, woollen carpets and rugs, cotton waste, minerals, animal hair, molasses, sausage casings, sports goods, surgical instruments, spices, gums and resins, manures, machinery other than electrical, and toilet preparations.

The total value of exports of minor commodities, including rice, during 1965-66 stood at Rs 659.0 million as against Rs 594.0 million during 1964-65, showing an increase of Rs 65 million, i.e. of 10.9 per cent. This increase was mainly due to larger exports of leather, rice, manures, machinery other than electrical, oilcakes, paints and varnishes, sausage casings, toilet preparations, fruits and vegetables, guar gums, chemicals, drugs and medicines, surgical instruments and electrical appliances and machines.

Out of the items restricted for exports, quotas were fixed for the export of wild animals, reptiles and birds during the year 1965-66, of ginger during the year 1965 and of garlic and onion during the year 1966. Further, all kinds of cotton seed oilcakes, artemisia, poppyseeds, cement, snakes (excluding pythons) chicken and poultry were made freely exportable.

Efforts were made further to increase export of these minor commodities during the year 1966-67. Out of the controlled items, quotas were fixed for the export of ginger, cattle feed and poultry feed

(excluding wheat bran, rice bran and rice husk), wild animals, reptiles and birds. Export targets for individual commodities for the year 1966-67 were fixed and the Export Promotion Bureau was charged with the responsibility of achieving these targets.

INTERNATIONAL TRADE RELATIONS

In international trade Pakistan has generally been opposed to restriction on free trade, especially to any protectionist policies of advanced countries against the developing countries. It has taken a clear-cut stand on behalf of developing countries on such matters as the European Common Market.

General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT)

Pakistan is a signatory to the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade (GATT) which is a multilateral trade agreement with the objective of expanding production and exchange of goods amongst member countries. Any advantage, favour, privilege or immunity granted by a member to any product of another member is, under the most favoured nation provision of the Agreement, accorded immediately and unconditionally to Pakistan, and vice versa.

To help expansion of trade of the less-developed countries, a new Chapter on Trade and Development has been included in the text of the General Agreement. This Chapter enjoins the developed countries to accord high priority to the reduction and elimination of barriers to products currently or potentially of particular export interest to the less-developed countries, and to refrain from imposing new fiscal measures and introducing or increasing the incidence of customs duties or non-tariff import barriers on these products. The new Chapter constitutes an important stage in the evolution and adoption of General Agreement to the requirements of the less-developed countries relating to their economic development. A Committee in Trade and Development was established to implement the provisions of this new Chapter.

That Committee has, in turn, set up a number of sub-committees and working groups to examine specific matters of interest to the less-developed countries. One of these bodies has been examining the problems involved in the expansion of trade among the less-developed countries, with special reference to the role of preferences. As a first step, it has been agreed that the establishment of preferences among the less-developed countries, appropriately administered and subject to necessary safeguards, could make an important contribution to the expansion of trade among these countries and that the establishment of such preferences should be the subject of negotiations. For the conduct of negotiations between the less-developed countries, necessary procedures have since been suggested, and less-developed countries wishing to negotiate for exchange of concessions with the other less-developed countries now intend to enter into negotiations with each other on a mutually advantageous and reciprocal basis. An important characteristic of these negotiations will be that the concessions to be exchanged would apply only to the less-developed countries.

An important provision of the new chapter on Trade and Development is that the developed countries do not expect reciprocity for commitments made by them in trade negotiations to reduce or remove tariffs and other barriers to the trade of the less-developed countries. In order to contribute to the solution of the trade problems of the less-developed countries in practical terms, Australia applied for and received, a waiver from the m.f.n. provisions of the Central Agreement in order to grant tariff preferences to imports of certain manufactures and semi-manufactures produced in the less-developed countries without expecting reciprocity from them. As a result of this facility, Pakistan's exports to Australia are likely to increase and it is hoped that the example of Australia will be followed by other developed countries to help in the expansion of trade of the less-developed countries.

Kennedy Round of Trade Negotiations

Comprehensive trade negotiations, commonly known as the Kennedy Round, were opened in May 1964 with a view to substantial liberalisation of the world trade. Under these negotiations, tariffs of the developed countries would be substantially reduced across-the-board and reciprocity will not be expected from the less-developed countries, whose contribution to the Round would be considered in the light of their trade and development needs. These negotiations also deal with non-tariff barriers. The Kennedy Round when successfully concluded will result in reduction not only of tariffs but many other barriers to trade of less-developed countries.

Commonwealth Preferences

Commonwealth Preferences, or Imperial Preferences as they were then known, were introduced in 1932. Under this, British and Pakistan commodities were imported and exported between them at much lower rates of duty than the normal ones. After Independence the preferences were challenged on the ground that there was no *quid pro quo*. It was seen that the U.K. had offered concession on items (like raw jute) which it would have had to buy in any case from Pakistan or for which (like coir mats, tanned sheepskins) the possibilities of export promotion were limited. In important items (like raw cotton) on which tariff preference would have been meaningful, only promises of encouraging their consumption in British factories were made. In return, specific advantages were obtained by the U.K. on a wide variety of articles imported by Pakistan. The lower duty on British goods did not help the consumer in Pakistan, since the U.K. supplies did not fully meet the total market demand and hence prices of British goods were generally no lower than for comparable goods from other sources. "In effect, Pakistan was deprived of customs revenue to the extent that goods were diverted from the higher to the lower duty, i.e. British industry was subsidised by the Pakistani taxpayer".

Accordingly negotiations were held and a Financial Agreement was rendered in 1951. Tariff concession on over 30 British items were abolished and the margin of preference on most others was reduced. A few items were introduced to the preferential list by Pakistan

for the first time. Existing concessions in favour of Pakistan were continued, and some others, as on sports goods, newly introduced. The Agreement also provided for most-favoured commonwealth nation treatment to products not included in the Agreement. This Agreement was to be very helpful in building up the single most important market for Pakistan's new manufactures.

European Common Market

Although not opposed to regional collaboration between countries in economic fields, Pakistan has advocated Britain's entry into the European Common Market only on terms that do not harm the existing trade relations of the developing countries with that country. She asked for lowering of the proposed common external tariff and extension of the period by which it would become fully effective; enlargement if not abolishment of the quotas of imported goods to be fixed for different countries of the Commonwealth, and nil tariff for outgoing goods which were important for Pakistan's economy but would constitute an infinitesimal part of the production of the enlarged community. On the whole, Pakistan asked for rectification of the growing imbalance in Pakistan's trade with the enlarged community.

While the Common Market's external tariff on Pakistan's two major raw material exports is zero, harm would occur in the case of manufactures where the external tariff ranges between 18 and 32 per cent, and cotton textiles, sports goods, cutlery, surgical instrument, hand knitted carpets, handloom products and leather goods would be hard hit. Secondly, the Common Market Countries have granted 'Associated' status to many of their formerly colonial territories, so that the goods from these states enter the Common Market free of duty. Without proper safeguards for the Commonwealth countries also, Britain's entry into the Market would bring about a reduction of British investment in the Commonwealth and would carry it to the associated territories within the Common Market.

Pakistan has already had a foretaste of quota fixation. It was decided by Britain in 1963 that exports of cotton from Pakistan would be limited to 42.4 million yards of cloth and 0.6 million pounds of yarn, representing the actual exports of 1961. "Pakistan's plea that its textile industry is still in the process of developing overseas market, that 1961 yarn exports were the lowest in years and cannot serve as a benchmark and that commitments had already been made for much larger shipments in 1963, was turned away on the ground that it would reopen the question of quotas established for and accepted by other Commonwealth sources of cheap textiles, viz., India and Hong Kong". (The USA has imposed similar restrictions on certain varieties of cloth on the ground of 'market disruption'.)

So far Britain has not succeeded in entering the Common Market, but Pakistan hopes that when it does her interests, together with those of other developing countries, will have been safeguarded.

Regional Cooperation for Development (RCD)

An agreement for Regional Cooperation for Development (RCD) was signed in 1964 between Iran, Turkey and Pakistan. The Cooperation envisaged stretches to various fields, including trade. Several concrete steps have since been taken in pursuance of this agreement. They include the following:

(i) A bilateral Trade Agreement between Pakistan and Turkey was concluded in December 1964. The Agreement was based on most-favoured-nation treatment and contains provision for grant of reciprocal facilities by either country to the other in respect of holding fairs and exhibitions. It is expected that the conclusion of this Agreement would strengthen the international frame-work for development of trade between the two countries.

(ii) The products of each country which the other two countries are in need of have been indentified and a list of such products exchanged with the object of directing administrative efforts to increasing exchange of such products among the member countries.

(ii) Single country licensing for specified items has been accepted as a principle by Turkey and Pakistan for increasing imports from each other.

(iv) Substantial progress has been made in the exchange of trade information, to facilitate closer contacts amongst the traders of the three countries. Lists of exporters and importers have been exchanged among the Chambers of Commerce of the three countries.

One of the decisions taken by the Ministerial Council of RCD was to set up a joint Chamber of Commerce of the three countries. The constitution of this Chamber has since been finalised. Its aims and objects include the following:

(i) To foster and develop intra-regional trade; promote investment opportunities among the member countries; achieve maximum cooperation among the chambers of commerce and industry in the member countries; and study and make recommendations to the Governments of the member countries about the ways and means of developing trade in the area covered by the RCD Chamber.

(ii) To promote cooperation between the RCD Chamber on the one hand and other international business and economic organizations on the other.

(iii) To help in industrial and commercial collaboration between enterprises in the member countries, and assist in initiating negotiations between interested parties for joint ventures.

(iv) To provide for arbitration in the settlement of disputes arising out of commercial transactions between parties.

(v) To assist in arranging and holding trade fairs, joint show rooms, exhibitions, seminars, lectures and advertising campaigns with a view to improving trade and commerce between Iran, Pakistan and Turkey.

A RCD Insurance centre has recently been set up in Pakistan.

The RCD Marine Re-insurance Pool set up in October 1966, will start accepting business with effect from January 1, 1967. The very large amounts of re-insurance placed outside the region by the three participating countries involving foreign exchange expenditure of several millions of rupees, will now be retained within the region with consequent saving of foreign exchange to each of these countries.

Three sessions each of the RCD Committee on Trade, the Regional Planning Council and the Council of Ministers were held during 1965-66 at which further consideration was given to the various measures for the development of intra-regional trade.

As recommended by the Committee on Trade and the Regional Planning Council, studies were initiated on the question of establishment of a payments Union of the RCD countries. Pakistan circulated, at the 5th session of the Committee on Trade and the Regional Planning Council meeting, held in April and May 1966, respectively, draft of a Tripartite Payments Agreement for the region. Later, on the suggestion of the Committee and the Council, Pakistan circulated an explanatory notes and a draft charter. The views of the Government of Iran and Turkey are awaited.

The Regional Planning Council, in its 4th session held in February 1966, had recommended that, keeping in view the pattern of the existing Agreement between Iran and Pakistan for Domicile, Commerce and Transit Trade, a similar draft agreement be drawn up by each of the three countries, separating the agreement on domicile from that on Commerce and Transit Trade and that drafts of the agreements should be exchanged and a final agreement concluded among the three countries. Accordingly, two draft agreements, one on domicile and the other on commerce and transit trade, were prepared by Pakistan and circulated to the Governments of Iran and Turkey. At their 5th session the Committee on Trade and the Regional Planning Council considered that it would be preferable to have three separate agreements on domicile, commerce and transit trade. They further recommended that the member countries should prepare drafts of these three agreements and exchange them with a view to concluding final agreements. Action on this recommendation is now in hand.

As a result of mutual consultations under the auspices of the RCD, Turkey decided to issue single country licences for the import of jute goods from Pakistan. Their annual requirement of jute goods is estimated at Rs 40 million. Pakistan decided under its import policy for January-June 1966 to allow import of superior quality cotton, mercury and electric insulators exclusively from Turkey. The sources of procurement of wood and timber were also restricted to Turkey and certain other countries. Imports of medicinal herbs and crude drugs were tied to Turkey and Iran along with certain other countries.

ECAFE Committee on Trade

Pakistan participated in the 9th session of the ECAFE Committee on Trade which met at Bangkok from January 24 to February 2, 1966. The agenda included *inter alia* review of developments in trade

and trade policies, Asian Trade Fair (held in Bangkok in November-December 1966) and activities of UNCTAD. The leader of the Pakistan Delegation was elected as Second Vice-Chairman of the Committee.

The Committee noted with concern that—

- While the World Trade increased by 11 per cent between 1963 and 1964, the exports of developing countries increased only by 6 per cent.
- In the ECAFE region there was an increase of 10.9 per cent in the value of exports but the increase of exports of the developing countries of the region was only 6.9 per cent as compared with an increase of 7 per cent in their imports.

The developing countries of the region also strongly felt the need of a freer access for their exports into the developed countries by gradual abolition of their tariff and non-tariff barriers as recommended by the UNCTAD. The Committee also noted with satisfaction the establishment of the Asian Development Bank, and the world-wide support which the Asian Trade Fair had received including the support of many developed countries. Pakistan has already decided to participate in the Fair.

22nd Session of the ECAFE TRADE

Pakistan also participated in the 22nd Session of the ECAFE held in New Delhi from the March 22 to April 4, 1966. The Leader of the Pakistan Delegation was elected as Chairman of the Drafting Committee.

The agenda of the Conference included such important items as the economic situation in Asia, development of trade in the ECAFE region, development of industry and natural resources, inland transport and communications, and Asian Development Bank. The Commission noted that the rate of economic growth in several developing ECAFE countries during the first half of the UN development decade had fallen considerably short of the growth target of 5 per cent. For the region as a whole, the rate of growth had fallen from 4.2 per cent in 1950's to only 3.2 per cent in the first half of 1960's. The least progress had been made in the agricultural sector, the per capita agricultural and food production in the region being still below the pre-war level. More rapid growth had been achieved in the industrial sector, but in most of the countries industry still contributed a minor percentage of the gross national product. In this situation when the developing countries needed more capital from the developed countries, it was noted that the inflow of external capital into the ECAFE region had not increased and was in some cases tending to decline. The Commission emphasised the need for the developed countries to give better access to the exports, particularly of manufactured goods, from the developing ECAFE countries and to increase substantially the volume of their financial assistance.

The Commission adopted the report of the 9th session of the Committee on Trade held in Bangkok earlier this year. It expressed disappointment at the lack of progress in the implementation of the

UNCTAD recommendations. The developing countries on the Commission, including Pakistan made a declaration emphasising the need for a preliminary meeting among the developing countries from Asia, Africa and Latin America before the next meeting of the UNCTAD scheduled to be held early next year.

The Commission accepted the recommendation of the Asian Industrialisation Conference held in Manila in December 1965 to establish the Conference as a permanent organ of the Commission meeting at three-years intervals, and to establish an Asian Industrial Development Council. It noted the progress being made in regional economic-cooperation and welcomed the establishment of the Asian Development Bank as an institution with considerable potentialities to accelerate the development of the developing ECAFE countries. It also commended the work of the Asian Institute of Economic Development and Planning, but at the instance of Pakistan, noted the imbalance as to geographical distribution in its teaching staff. A member of the Planning Commission of Pakistan was elected to the next Governing Council of the Institute.

At the instance of Pakistan, the Commission also passed a resolution asking the Asian Highway Coordinating Committee to review the various urgent works for completing priority routes including construction of some section of the Asian highway and major bridges and make practical recommendations for obtaining the financial and technical assistance necessary for their completion.

TRADE AGREEMENTS

New trade and barter agreements have been signed with a number of countries, and existing agreements automatically renewed under a provision of these agreements *vide* Table 29. Twelve new agreements were signed during the period April 1965 to March 1966: with Bulgaria, China, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Indonesia, Jordan, Poland (3), and USSR (2). In addition, existing trade agreements were renewed with 32 countries. All these agreements provide for most-favoured treatment in trade, and indicate lists of mutual exports and imports.

As noted, special attention has been paid to the development of trade with countries having centrally planned economies. This has helped Pakistan find new suppliers for imports and new markets for exports. As a result of agreements for exchange of commodities concluded with Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, the USSR and Yugoslavia, Pakistan's export trade with these countries has increased from Rs 80 million in 1962-63 to Rs 117.8 million in 1965-66. Exports during 1966-67 are expected to rise more than two-fold over the 1965-66 figures.

Foreign Trade Delegations to Pakistan

Several trade delegations from different countries have been visiting Pakistan to explore possibilities, hold negotiations and conclude agreements on trade and other matters of mutual interest of the delegation include those from socialist countries. During 1965-66 two of them came from the USSR, three from Poland, and one each from

TABLE 29
TRADE AGREEMENTS CONCLUDED DURING 1965-66

Country	Nature of Agreement	Validity From	Validity To
Bulgaria	Agreement for exchange of goods worth Rs 31.2 million each way.	16-12-65	15-12-67
China	Contracted for import of cement worth Rs 4½ million against export of cotton.	6-7-65	Valid until implemented.
Czechoslovakia	Agreement for exchange of goods worth Rs 9 million each way.	29-1-66	28-1-67
Hungary	Commodity exchange agreement for exchange of goods worth Rs 20 million each way.	8-2-66	7-2-68
Indonesia	Exchange of letters about further export credit of US $ 5 million to Indonesia for purchase of jute goods from Pakistan.	29-10-65	Valid until implemented.
Poland	Commodity exchange agreement for exchange of goods worth Rs. 40 million each way.	10-12-65	31-12-67
Poland	Barter agreement for import of coal and coke against export of raw jute and raw cotton worth Rs 25 million each way.	10-12-65	9-12-66
USSR	Payments agreement envisaging exchange of goods worth Rs 64 million each way.	18-1-66	31-12-66
USSR	Rice barter deal (Export of 85,000 tons of basmati rice against import of machinery, pig iron etc).	18-1-66	31-12-66
Yugoslavia	Barter agreement for import of material and equipment for installation and electrification of about 300 tubewells against export of raw jute worth Rs 14.2 million.	28-3-66	27-3-68

Rumania, Hungary and Yugoslavia. Others included the following.

Indonesia: Continuous attention has been paid to further improvement of trade with Indonesia, and a series of trade and credit agreements have been concluded with her. As a result trade between Pakistan and Indonesia rose from Rs one million in 1962-63 to Rs 8 million in 1963-64, Rs 26 million in 1964-65 and to Rs 68 million in 1965-66.

Iraq: A 2-man Iraqi delegation visited Pakistan during August 1965, and held discussions with the representatives of the Export Promotion Bureau on the prospects of promoting mutual trade.

Iran: The Iranian Minister of Economy paid a visit to Pakistan in November 1965. The prospects of increasing trade between Pakistan and Iran, particularly border trade *via* the land route, were discussed.

Kuwait: The Minister for Commerce of Kuwait visited Pakistan in April 1966 to discuss possibilities of expansion of trade between the two countries.

Australia: A delegation consisting of the Deputy Chairman and the Member of the Australian Tariff Board, visited Pakistan in May 1966, in connection with the preferential tariffs recently extended by the Australian Government to the manufacture of developing countries, and discussed with the officials and leading businessmen and industrialists, matters concerning Pakistan's trade and economic development.

Tanzania: A delegation from Tanzania headed by their Minister for Commerce came to Pakistan in February 1966 with the object of exploring further avenues of trade and mutual cooperation between Pakistan and Tanzania in the field of agriculture and industry.

Somalia: An Economic Delegation from Somalia headed by the Somalian Ambassador in Jeddah, visited Pakistan in June 1966 to discuss possibilities of further expansion of trade between the two countries.

Sudan: A Sudanese Cotton Sales Promotion Delegation headed by the Managing Director of the Agricultural Bank of Sudan visited Pakistan in August 1966 with a view to selling Sudanese cotton and exploring the possibilities of entering into a balanced trade agreement with Pakistan.

Pakistan trade delegations comprising officials and businessmen have similarly been visiting foreign countries.

Pakistan Trade Delegations

The Commerce Minister toured Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Kuwait, Iran and Turkey in April 1966 and held discussions with ministers and officers of the countries on possibilities of collaboration in trade and industrial development. He observed that there was great scope for increasing trade with these countries and boosting up exports of Pakistani goods to them.

A 20-man delegation of businessmen, led by the Vice-Chairman, Export Promotion Bureau, visited the countries on the Arabian Peninsula during June-July, 1966. The delegation visited 14 trade centres, namely, Kuwait, Doha, Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Damman, Jeddah, Mecca, Riyadh, Medina, Amman, Jerusalem, Nablus, Aqaba and Bahrain. Meetings were held with Heads of States, Ministers, and officials concerned with trade and economic matters, and with the Trade Chambers and businessmen. Samples of Pakistani goods were displayed at all these centres. Competing goods of other sources were also studied. Individual members of the delegation, representing several industries of Pakistan, developed contacts with the importers or potential importers of their products and conducted negotiations. They appointed their agents in Kuwait, Dubai, Doha, Abu Dhabi, Jeddah and Jordan for diesel engines, paints and varnishes, transistor radios, canned fruits, electric fans, etc.

A 13-man Traders Team, headed by the President of the Federation of Chamber of Commerce and Industry, Karachi, visited the Maghreb

countries during May-June 1966 with the object of exploring markets for Pakistani goods. The delegation made on-the-spot deals and booked orders. It discovered considerable scope for increase of Pakistan's trade with the Maghreb, Libya and Algeria in particular.

A 10-Member Businessmen's Delegation, headed by the Vice-President of the Federation of the Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Industry, visited Philippines, Hong Kong, Singapore and Thailand during May and June 1966. The delegation tried to introduce new items of export from Pakistan, such as vitamins B and C, engineering products, etc. They succeeded in putting through an on-the-spot sale of Pakistani products to the value of Rs 3 million comprising items like cotton yarn, raw cotton, pharmaceuticals and ready-made garments.

Two trade delegations went to China and Czechoslovakia to discuss matters relating to further development of trade between Pakistan and these countries.

Enemy Property

All movable and immovable property owned in Pakistan by enemy subjects or enemy firms as defined in the Defence of Pakistan Rules, or owned by the Government of India automatically became enemy property on the promulgation of the Defence of Pakistan Rules on 6th September 1965 after the Indian attack on Pakistan. A Custodian of Enemy Property was appointed to administer such enemy property as may be vested in him. Apart from the Custodian, Agents were appointed by the Central Government and various other authorities, including Provincial Governments, to whom the Central Government's powers were delegated, to run and manage certain enemy concerns. Agents were, as far as possible, chosen from the existing managerial staff of the firms concerned; only where no suitable person was available within the firm was an outsider with experience of the business appointed.

The powers of the Central Government in this behalf were delegated to the Provincial Governments and other bodies such as Jute Board, Tea Board, State Bank of Pakistan and the Pakistan Insurance Corporation.

Certain broad principles were followed in the taking over of enemy firms for management. After careful consideration Government decided that enemy commercial and industrial concerns should be taken over for management by the public sector agency engaged in allied business or industrial activity. In keeping with this decision, enemy industrial concerns were taken over for management by the Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation, banks by the State Bank of Pakistan; insurance companies by the Pakistan Insurance Corporation; hotels by Pakistan International Airlines; a steam navigation company by the National Shipping Corporation; jute trading firms by the Jute Board; and tea estates by the Tea Board.

In order to ensure that least possible dislocation occurred in the economic activity of the country, Government decided that taking over of enemy property should be done on a selective basis. Further,

with a view to ensuring that international relations were not harmed, concerns in which neutrals held a controlling interest were not interferred with. Thirdly, in order not to harm the interests of Pakistani nationals, companies in which the majority interests were those of Pakistanis were not disturbed. The same policy was followed in cases where Indian Muslims were interested. In all such cases, only the shares held by the enemy were vested in the Custodian.

Scrutiny of the working of enemy firms revealed not only gross irregularities of administrative character but also offences and crimes under various laws committed by the former Indian owners. Among the irregularities detected were: (*i*) pilferage of funds and stocks, (*ii*) unauthorised loaning of money to Indian nationals in India and then writing the amounts off, (*iii*) transfer of funds to India through other underhand means, (*iv*) non-payment of income tax, (*v*) illegal transfer of shares and stocks to India, and (*vi*) under-invoicing of goods exported. The scrutiny made it clear that substantial sums of money were being drained out of the country by the former Indian owners of these firms/companies. One beneficial effect of the take-over was, therefore, the stoppage of unauthorised flow of funds to India; another effect was that these concerns, badly neglected or pillaged by their former Indian owners, have now been put on sound economic footing and are being properly administered. In the case of industrial concerns, figures of production now show an upward trend.

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS

The balance of payments is a systematic account of economic transactions between the 'residents' of Pakistan and those of the rest of the world. As in social accounts, the economic transactions with non-residents are basically of five types, viz. (*i*) exchange of goods and services, against financial items, (*ii*) barter of goods and services, (*iii*) exchange of financial items against other financial items, (*iv*) provision or acquisition of goods and services without a *quid pro quo*, and (*v*) provisions or acquisition of financial items without a *quid pro quo*. The first three types of transactions generate equal credit and debit entries while for the remaining two, the contra entries are passed in 'transfer payments' account to match with the corresponding 'goods and services' and 'capital' items so provided or acquired.

The balance of payments statements are based on exchange record maintained by the State Bank and such supplementary information as is obtained from annual surveys on foreign investments in Pakistan, disbursement advices on utilization of foreign assistance, authorizations for payment of foreign loans and credits and abstracts of Indus Basin accounts. Since 1964, the scope of balance of payments statistics has been widened by incorporating transactions of the Indus Basin Development Fund and the figures of foreign investments in Pakistan in the form of capital goods and re-invested earnings.

Review

The country has experienced balance of payment difficulties from the outset. A deficit emerged after 1948 as traders rebuilt stocks

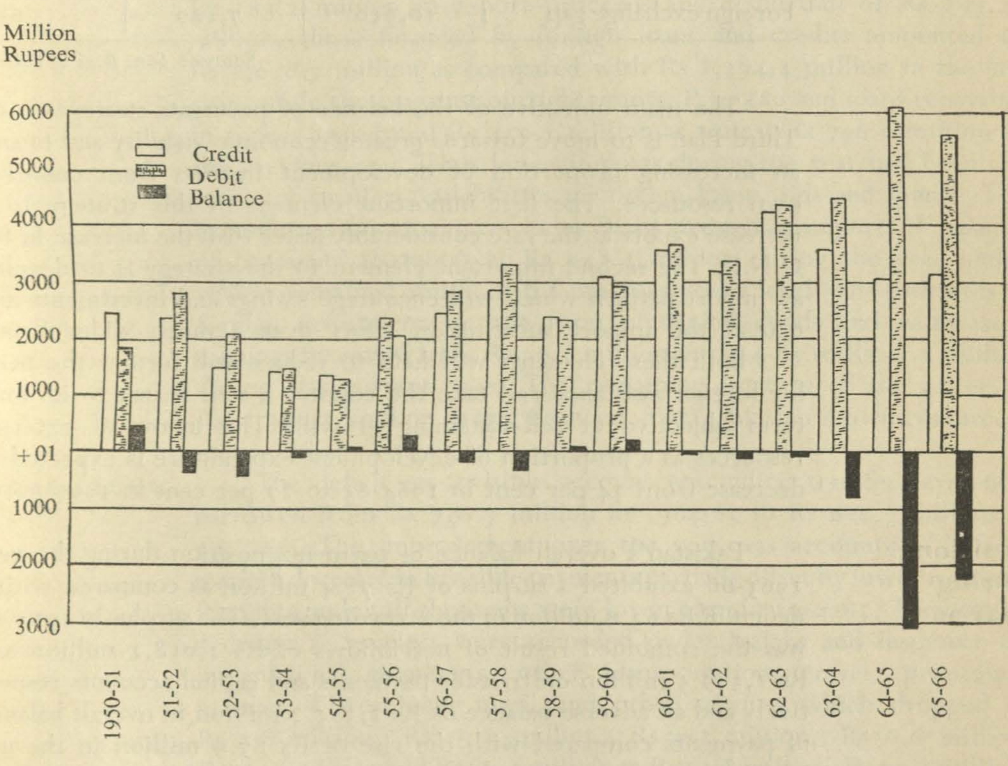
under a liberal import licensing policy and large purchases were made by the Government. The recorded deficit of Rs 455.4 million in 1948-49 was partly offset by a surplus with India as reflected in the working of the special payment arrangements with that country. In 1949-50, the deficit was smaller owing to the restriction of imports. By the first half of 1950-51, the deficit had been largely eliminated and, by a sharp improvement in earnings from raw cotton, it was transformed into a massive surplus of Rs 578.0 million for the year, as export prices rose after the outbreak of the Korean War. The situation reversed with the weakening of commodity markets while imports rose rapidly. A deficit re-emerged in 1951-52 and this trend continued until in July 1955 Pakistan rupee was devalued. This caused a sharp increase in exports and a surplus of Rs 361.8 million was recorded in 1955-56. The impact of devaluation was soon lost due to recessionary trends in world market for primary exports and high cost of production of exportable goods. The Government introduced the export bonus scheme in January 1959 to provide an incentive to exports, and the balance of payments again recorded a surplus of Rs 118.1 million in 1959-60.

Improvement in the balance of payments position was an important objective of the First Five-Year Plan (1955-60) which was to be achieved by increasing exports, import substitution, and economy in non-development imports. The Plan projected foreign exchange earnings at Rs 10,500 million; it provided for imports, both developmental and non-developmental, including food valued at Rs 16,620 million. These imports were to be financed from Pakistan's own earnings, from external aid in the form of loans and grants, and from foreign private investments. Foreign earnings fell short of the Plan targets and some of the expectations about foreign aid were not realised. Total earnings during the Plan period (1955-60) were Rs 9,544 million, about 10 per cent less than the Plan expectations. The shortfall in earnings was accounted for by a number of factors, notably inadequate increase in domestic production, a decline in world trade, and increased demand at home for exportable goods. Foreign aid arrivals, and foreign private investments were Rs 5,070 million against the Plan expectations of Rs 6,120 million. The balance of payments position was worsened by a sharp deterioration in the terms of trade and by the emergence of a serious food shortage. The index of the terms of trade declined by about 40 per cent between the first quarter of 1955 and the last quarter of 1959.

In the Second Plan, as in the First, improvement in the balance of payments position remained an essential objective. The Second Plan projection for the foreign exchange earnings anticipated an increase from Rs 2,127 million in 1959-60 to Rs 2,450 million in 1964-65, yielding a total of Rs 11,250 million for the plan period.

The total imports were projected at Rs 22,200 million, leaving a gap of Rs 10,950 million to be covered by foreign assistance. The total earnings over the Plan period have been Rs 13,228 million and thus exceeded the Plan target by 18 per cent. The total imports during

PAKISTAN'S BALANCE OF PAYMENTS ON CURRENT ACCOUNT



SOURCE: *The State Bank of Pakistan*

the Plan period were Rs 20,680 million or 6 per cent less than the original estimates. The foreign exchange gap has consequently been only Rs 7,549 million against Rs 10,950 million envisaged. The balance of payment position is summarised as under:

TABLE 30

BALANCE OF PAYMENT OVER SECOND PLAN

	Plan Projection (Rs million)	Actual (Rs million)	Actual as percentage of projected
Total imports	22,200	20,680	94
Total export	11,250	13,228	118
Changes in foreign exchange reserves	—	97	—
Foreign exchange gap	10,950	7,549	68

Source: *State Bank of Pakistan.*

The main objective of the balance of payments strategy in the Third Plan is to move towards greater economic viability and finance an increasing proportion of development imports from country's own resources. The first important element in this strategy is to increase export at the rate considerably faster than the increase in the G.N.P. The second important element in the strategy is to develop an import pattern which will encourage savings and investments and extend the import substitution effort over a much wider front.

Both these elements will help to reduce still further the need for foreign assistance and take the country a step nearer to its long term objective of self-sustaining growth. The inflow of external resources as a proportion of development expenditure is expected to decrease from 34 per cent in 1964-65 to 27 per cent in 1969-70.

Position during 1965-66

Pakistan's overall balance of payments position during the year 1965-66 exhibited a surplus of Rs 72.4 million as compared with a deficit of Rs 63.6 million in the preceding year. The surplus in 1965-66 was the combined result of net inflows of Rs 1,058.1 million and Rs 1,319.5 million on transfer payments and capital accounts respectively and an adverse balance of Rs 2,305.2 million in overall balance of payments compared with the rise of Rs 87.9 million in the net position of monetary institutions, as against a fall of Rs 288.3 million in the previous year. The gold, dollar and sterling reserves held and controlled by the State Bank of Pakistan increased over the year by Rs 311.6 million from Rs 951.7 million to Rs 1,263.3 million which also include a drawing of U.S. $37.5 million (Rs 178.6 million) from International Monetary Fund in July 1965. The comparative position of major heads of balance of payments is summarised below:

Merchandise Account

During the year 1965-66, the deficit in the merchandise account narrowed substantially to Rs 1,678.9 million as against the deficit of Rs 2,255.4 million in 1964-65. The improvement of Rs 576.5 million

TABLE 31

BALANCE OF PAYMENTS 1964-66

Million rupees

	1965-66	1964-65
1. Goods and Service	(—) 2,305.2	(—) 3,012.1
2. Transfer Payments	(+) 1,058.1	(+) 1,429.5
3. Capital Transactions	(+) 1,319.5	(+) 1,519.0
4. Monetary Movements	(—) 87.9	(+) 288.3
(*a*) *Gold, Dollar and Sterling Reserves*	(—) 311.6	(+) 283.6
(*b*) *Others*	(+) 223.7	(+) 4.7
5. Balancing Item	(+) 15.5	(—) 224.6

Source: *State Bank of Pakistan.*

over the preceding year was accounted for both by an increase of Rs 283.2 million in export proceeds and a shortfall of Rs 293.37 million, those financed by foreign loans and credits amounted to Rs 1,050.7 million as compared with Rs 1,174.4 million in the last year, while those against outright grants, P.L. 480 and loans repayable in rupees aggregated Rs 459.1 million as against Rs 796.0 million in the previous year. Thus lower imports during the year had been the result of smaller availabilities of foreign loans, aids and grants. The expenditure on account of Indus Basin (treated as imports in balance of payments accounts) at Rs 448.4 million during the year under review remained almost at the previous year's level. The estimates of foreign investments in the form of capital goods and re-invested earnings increased from Rs 30.9 million in 1964-65 to Rs 41.4 million during the current year. The remaining imports of the order of Rs 2,366.1 million were financed from Pakistan's own resources.

Invisible Account

The deficit on invisible account (excluding transfer payments) narrowed from Rs 756.7 million in 1964-65 to Rs 626.3 million in 1965-66. The improvement over the year was accounted for by a marked decrease in invisible payments partially offset by lower receipts. Receipts under all the items were lower than in 1964-65. The notable decrease in receipts were recorded under freight and insurance on international shipments, other transportation, travel, investment income, Government n.e.i. and other services which dropped by Rs 2.8 million, Rs 19.1 million, Rs 0.2 million, Rs 6.6 million, Rs 13.6 million and Rs 66.4 million to Rs 21.8 million, Rs 70.9 million, Rs 10.3 million, Rs 43.4 million, Rs 168.9 million and Rs 197.6 million respectively. Payments under freight and insurance fell by Rs 179.8 million to Rs 401.6 million. Travel, Government n.e.i. and other services also recorded lower payments by Rs 27.9 million, Rs 30.1 million and Rs 71.6 million to Rs 27.3 million, Rs 205.2 million and Rs 139.4 million respectively. On the other hand higher payments were made under the head "investment income" and "other transportation" by Rs 56.3 million and Rs 15.2 million to Rs 297.3 million and Rs 69.4 million respectively. Larger payments against investment income during the year were due mainly to interest payments on

foreign loans and credits.

Transfer Payments

Transfer payments comprising private remittances and official donations including loans repayable in rupees recorded a net inflow of Rs 1,058.1 million during 1965-66 as compared with Rs 1,429.5 million in 1964-65.

Monetary Movements

The regional analysis of basic balance of payments reveals that the position with the Sterling area was favourable to the extent of Rs 316.5 million while that with non-Sterling area exhibited an adverse balance of Rs 244.1 million during the current year. In the Sterling area, surpluses were recorded with all the countries or country groups except the U.K. Of these, the position was notably favourable with Middle Eastern group (+Rs 121.0 million), Far Eastern group (+99.7 million), India (+Rs 64.9 million) and the residual group of countries (+Rs 254.8 million) while the payments position was unfavourable with the U.K. (—Rs 223.8 million). In the non-Sterling area group, the overall position was favourable with countries in the Far Eastern Group (+Rs 142.9 million), Latin America (+Rs 67.1 million), the USA (+Rs 60.8 million), Middle Eastern group (+Rs 48.4 million), Eastern Europe (+Rs 45.1 million) and Canada (+Rs 18.7 million) and unfavourable with Japan (—Rs 242.6 million), Western Europe (—Rs 157.0 million) and rest of the world (—Rs 227.5 million) during the year under review.

TABLE 32

TERMS OF TRADE

Million rupees

Period July-June	Imports	Exports	Terms of Trade
1955-56 ..	.. 1325.1	1783.7	+ 458.6
1956-57 ..	.. 2334.6	1607.6	— 727.0
1957-58 ..	.. 2050.0	1421.7	— 628.3
1958-59 ..	.. 1578.4	1325.3	— 253.1
1959-60 ..	.. 2461.0	1842.7	— 618.3
1960-61 ..	.. 3187.6	1799.4	—1388.2
1961-62 ..	.. 3109.1	1843.4	—1265.7
1962-63 ..	.. 3818.8	2247.3	—1571.5
1963-64 ..	.. 4430.2	2299.1	—2130.9
1964-65 ..	.. 5374.2	2407.7	—2966.4
1965-66 ..	.. 4208.3	2717.7	—1490.6

Source: *Central Statistical Office.*

Balancing Item

The surplus of Rs 316.5 million with the Sterling area during 1965-66 compared with the surplus of Rs 333.1 million in the preceding year. The deterioration of Rs 16.6 million was accounted for by increased payments on goods and services account to the extent of Rs 62.4 million and reduced inflow of Rs 22.3 million under capital account partly offset by an increased inflow by Rs 68.1 million in

transfer payments during 1965-66. The deficit with the non-Sterling area of the order of Rs 244.1 million compared with the deficit of Rs 396.7 million in 1964-65 showing a relative improvement of Rs 152.6 million over the preceding year. The improvement was the combined result of higher earnings from exports and lower foreign aid-financed imports.

INTERNAL TRADE AND ORGANISATION

A great part of Pakistan's internal trade is 'overseas' trade for the reason that the two wings of the country are about 3,000 sea miles and 1,200 air miles apart. The bulk of this trade is carried by sea, a small volume by air.

Pattern of Trade

Trend

Exports from East Pakistan to West Pakistan are increasing faster than trade in the reverse direction mainly because East Pakistan's economy is growing at a faster rate than the economy of West Pakistan. East Pakistan's manufactured goods are, for the same reason, gaining at the cost of primary products. There is now an increasing percentage of the former in the Province's exports to the other wing.

Composition

The composition of the trade has diversified in past years. While the primary products have remained, there has been considerable addition of manufactured goods, which now form the major part of the outflow both ways.

West Pakistan's imports from East Pakistan mainly consist of betel-nuts, spices, wood timber, fruits and vegetables, tea, jute manufactures, paper and paste-board, matches and leather.

Imports into East Pakistan from West Pakistan are chiefly rice, wheat and other cereals, raw cotton, oilseeds, tobacco, machinery, cotton yarn, cotton fabrics, drugs and medicines, edible oils, tobacco manufactures, and metal manufacture.

During 1963-64 and 1964-65 primary products constituted 12.9 per cent and 9.2 per cent respectively of West wing's import of East wing's goods. Manufactured goods were 87.1 per cent and 90.8 per cent of the total value during the two years. The primary goods that suffered decline were betel-nuts and spices. The manufactured goods that gained were paper and paste-board, tea, jute manufactures, cotton piece-goods, dyeing and tanning materials and drugs and medicines.

The import of primary products into East Pakistan during 1963-64 and 1964-65, were 39.4 per cent and 30.9 per cent respectively of the total value. The value of manufactured imports were 60.6 per cent and 69.1 per cent respectively. Among primary products, there was a substantial rise in the imports of wheat and other cereals and oilseeds, but a substantial fall in rice and spices imports. Among the manufactured products, there was a substantial increase in imports of vegetable oil, cotton fabrics, drugs and medicines, books and printed matter, gums and resins and tobacco manufactures but a substantial decrease

in imports of salt, cotton yarn and thread, cement, soap, metals, ores and minerals and footwear.

Value

This inter-zonal trade had a small start in 1948-49 worth only Rs 160.1 million. Since then it has risen sharply, and the upward trend still continues, helping to integrate the economy of the country more and more. It rose to Rs 931.8 million in 1959-60 and to Rs 1,411.6 million in 1964-65. The increase in the five years of the Second Plan period was of 51.5 per cent. During July 1965 to March 1966, the value of the trade stood at Rs 1,366.2 million an increase of 28.1 per cent compared with the corresponding period of the preceding years.

Imports into West Pakistan from East Pakistan during 1964-65 increased by 5 per cent compared to the preceding year and by 13.5 per cent over that of 1962-63. This increase was mainly due to increased imports of tea and paper and paste-board. Between July 1965 and March 1966 the increase was very much higher: by 23.5 per cent over the corresponding period of 1964-65.

Imports into East Pakistan from West Pakistan during 1964-65 fell by 2.3 per cent over 1963-64 and by 8.6 per cent over 1962-63. In 1963-64, considerably less rice was exported from West Pakistan to East Pakistan. The first nine months of 1965-66, however, marked a sharp rise over the corresponding period of the previous year, by over Rs 200 million or over 31 per cent.

TABLE 33

INTER-ZONAL TRADE

Million rupees

Year (July-June)	Imports into West Pakistan	Imports into East Pakistan
1948-49	19.8	140.3
1949-50	50.5	235.6
1950-51	62.9	272.5
1957-58	269.5	702.4
1958-59	288.7	685.8
1959-60	362.4	569.4
1963-64	511.2	895.2
1964-65	537.1	874.5
1965-66 (July-March)	522.3	843.9

Source: *Economic Survey, 1965-66.*

Note: Figures upto 1956 relate to private account and thereafter to both private and Government accounts.

INTERNAL PRICES

The trend of prices between 1947 to 1966 has been uneven. At the time of independence, prices in Pakistan continued their upward trend which they had acquired during World War II and

the post-War years. From the middle of August 1947 to the end of 1948, prices kept rising mainly due to the unsettled conditions of the post independence period. There was scarcity of commodities. The crop of 1947 had already moved out from West Punjab (in Pakistan) to the deficit areas of East Punjab (in India). In 1948, the crop suffered from small sowings and also defective harvesting due to post-independence movement of population. The floods further destroyed standing crops and the stocks.

From 1949 onwards, for some years, the trend of prices was reversed. The deflator used by the Central Statistical Office in its national income estimates showed a price decline of about 15 per cent between 1950 to 1955. This was initially due to the measures taken by the Government to restore normalcy in general, and in the market mechanism in particular, and also to the good harvests in both the wings. The recession in the USA at the end of 1948, and the beginning of 1949 and then the devaluation of the pound sterling in September 1949 also had their effect. Then came the Korean War in 1950-51 which raised the prices of Pakistan's exports. The effects of this boom lasted through the first half of the fifties.

During 1959-60 there came a sharp increase in prices, by about 40 per cent. This was the result of liberal recourse to deficit financing during the Pakistan's First Plan period.

This rising trend was checked and reversed at the time when the new regime came into power after a peaceful Revolution in October 1958.

The new Government took strong measures against smugglers, hoarders and profiteers. Profit margins were fixed for producers and traders. Price control was made more effective. Schedules of prices were required to be put up by shopkeepers for the information of the buyers. Efforts were intensified to increase agricultural and industrial production. The import policy was liberalized to a certain extent and the methods of licensing were rationalized. As a result of these measures, there was large-scale, dishoarding of foodgrains and the stock of imported commodities. The development activity had also received a spurt. The industrial production for the quarter October-December 1958 was 11 points higher than for the preceding quarter. Thus, there was a sharp decline in the prices of imported goods and domestic manufactures.

There was some fluctuation after this but the prices became firm again during the first quarter of 1959, and the general level at the end of March 1959 was still lower than that prevailing before October 1958.

The price situation during the first four years under the Second Plan (1960-65) reflected marked stability. Some increase was recorded but it was modest, averaging about 2 to 3 per cent for retail and 1.6 per cent for whole-sale prices. These price trends were also confirmed by the analysis of the increase in money supply. The annual rate of increase in money supply was around 7 per cent during 1950-54, and 10 per cent during 1954-58. During 1958-62 it was brought under

12. TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS

For a country as large as Pakistan, and physically divided by the whole breadth of another country, a sound transport and communications system is both a challenge and a vital need. Great importance has accordingly been given to its development, particularly in recent years, so that the system is now well in pace with the country's expanding social and economic requirements. At present it contributes 6 per cent to the gross national product, and employs nearly 677,000 persons.

In size of allocation, the Third Plan (1965-70) has given the development of transport and communications the highest importance after the industries, fuels and minerals sectors. The allocation is 18.2 per cent of the total Plan expenditure proposed for all sectors during the five years. This also marks a sharp increase over previous expenditure on this sector; it is more than double that incurred during 1960-65, the preceding Plan period. Particular emphasis is being laid on maintenance and improvement of railways, building of

roads, development of civil aviation, reorganisation of inland water transport, construction of new ports and expansion in telecommunication facilities.

TRANSPORT

There are five important methods of transport in the country: railways, roads, sea and inland waters, and air. Inland water transport is relevant only, and vitally, to the eastern province, the whole of which is thickly intersected with water courses. Air travel plays a specially important role in linking up the two wings of the country. Railways however remain the principal system of transportation, because they have a wide network, long journeys on them are comparatively cheap and quick, and heavy freight can be carried easily. Besides facilitating the movement of people, the railways are of great economic importance. Together with road transport they help in redistribution of foodgrains, haul raw materials to growing industries, carry back finished goods to different parts of the country.

RAILWAYS

The history of railways in these regions begins just 36 years after George Stephenson drove the first engine between Darlington and Stockholm. The Pakistan Western Railway came into existence, though under a different name, a hundred years ago, in May 1861, when the line between Karachi and Kotri, a distance of 105 miles, was first opened to traffic. The first line in the eastern province was opened a year and a half later, between Darsana and Jagati, a distance of 33 miles. Further construction followed in both the regions at gradual pace, so that in August 1947, after ceding portions of each network that fell in the new Indian territories, Pakistan had 4,999 route-miles in the western and 1,618 route-miles in the eastern province. In 1961 their names, the North Western Railway and Eastern Bengal Railway, were changed to Pakistan Western Railway and Pakistan Eastern Railway.

The railway mileage in Pakistan is 1.9 to 100 sq. miles of the country. This compares favourably with a few countries like Australia (1.1) and Canada (1.2) but adversely with most others.

Organisation

The railways are owned and managed by the government. For long a central subject, they were transferred to the respective provincial governments in July 1962 as part of a decentralisation process. Each provincial railway has been since administered and managed by a railway board which functions as an autonomous body in all administrative and executive matters. The chairman of the board is the chief executive who is solely responsible for taking decisions and advising government on railway policies. For operational purposes the railways are divided into divisions, two in East Pakistan (East and West of the River Brahmaputra) and six in West Pakistan, each with local headquarters.

Finances

The capital invested in the Railways amounted to Rs 2,272.6 million upto the end of the fiscal year 1965-66. The central government's share of this investment was Rs 1,884.8 million, and the provin-

cial governments' Rs 387.8 million. The central and the provincial governments receive a fixed return on their respective investments.

The Railways prepare their own budgets, which are not part of the provincial governments' general budgets. The Railway budgets are presented to the respective provincial legislatures as separate documents.

Before the Railways were transferred to the control of the provincial governments they were, on the whole, running at a profit. Since the provincialisation the Pakistan Western Railways has shown a total surplus of Rs 180.2 million during the period from Ist July 1962 to 30th June 1966; and the Pakistan Eastern Railways a deficit of Rs 42.2 million during the same period, due mainly to repair and development works. However, the budgets of the two Railways for the year 1966-67 showed the following position:

Million rupees

	Revenues	*Expenditure*	*Ratio*
Pakistan Eastern Railway	Rs 306.3	Rs 241.1	78.7%
Pakistan Western Railway	Rs 630.1	Rs 551.1	87.5%

Source: *Ministry of Communications.*

Development

The railway system came to Pakistan in a decadent and crippled condition. There had been great wear and tear of track and equipment due both to long usage and, more especially, to the war time needs of World War II. So much so that strict restrictions were imposed on speed. The Eastern Railway had suffered in particular due to the Japanese war on the Indo-Burmese border. Secondly the Eastern Railway was one of four very unequal portions into which the Bengal and Assam Railway was divided at the time of Independence, inheriting all the 'operational draw-backs and physical impediment in the movement of traffic', and being deprived of all facilities, such as locos, workshops stores, depots and training schools.

The Western Railway was faced at the start with the additional burden of transporting hundreds of thousands of refugees both ways, for which 1,150 special trains had to be run covering over 200,000 train miles. In January 1948 came the serious shortage of coal hitherto obtained entirely from India, causing 75 per cent cut in passenger service and restrictions on movement of goods.

Born in such inauspicious beginnings Pakistan's railways have travelled very far since. The First Plan provided for the renewal of track for most of the main lines and some of the important branch lines, purchase of diesel electric locomotives, passenger coaches, wagons and rehabilitation of other equipment at an eventual cost of nearly Rs 800 million. The Second Plan made an even greater effort at rehabilitation and development, through renewal of tracks, strengthening of bridges, addition to rolling stock, construction or extension of railway lines, modernisation of signalling and other techniques of

operation and practice and removal of traffic bottlenecks. Total expenditure during this Plan was nearly double the First, of Rs 1,577 million. Many of the new engines are now run by diesel oil and electricity. Diesel operation accounts for an average of 65 per cent of gross ton-miles on the two railways. Some other details as of 1964-65 were as follows:

		Eastern Railway	*Western Railway*
Route miles	..	1,712.55	5,333.69
Track miles	..	2,599.89	7,581.38
Railway Stations	..	434	814
Locomotives	..	483	1,012
Coaching Vehicles	..	1,790	3,175
Freight Wagons	..	22,682	33,644
Number of Employees	..	58,708	130,375

The Third Plan is carrying the work forward at an enhanced expenditure of Rs 2,310 million. Additional capacity is being developed through electric traction, expansion of dieselisation, improvement of track, and provision of additional tracks on congested sections, installation of modern signalling and remodelling of yards and terminal facilities. Construction of new railway lines form nearly one-quarter of the Eastern Railway's allocation, and a substantial part of the Western.

Passenger amenities are a major head of railway development expenditure. They include well-equipped waiting-rooms, improved platforms and increase in their numbers, reconstruction of old station buildings, expansion in air-condition services, and such conveniences as electro-mechanical water coolers and telephone booths.

Railway Routes

Railways were constructed in the more populous parts of the plains but in the sparsely populated hilly regions, where construction is also difficult and more expensive, there are few lines, such as those through the Bolan Pass or to Landi Kotal. Because of the difficulty of constructing bridges across the rivers, layout of the railways largely follows the direction of the rivers. In East Pakistan the lines generally run north to south, and in West Pakistan north-east to south-west, there are few lines running east to west.

Pakistan Eastern Railway

The principal routes of the Pakistan Eastern Railways are as follows:

Dacca to Chittagong: These two important cities are directly connected by circuitous railway line going through Bhairab Bazar, Akhaura and Comilla. The railway mileage is 198.

Akhaura to Sylhet: This line goes via Kulaura and is 110 miles.

Dacca to Bahadurabad: Going through Mymensingh the railway line is 106.25 miles.

Dacca to Darsana: The railway runs from Dacca to Narayanganj

from where there is a steamer service to Goalundo. From Goalundo the railway runs to Darsana on the border with India. The distance from Dacca to Narayanganj is 10 miles, and from Goalundo to Darsana 84 miles.

Chittagong to Darsana: The railway runs from Chittagong to the river port of Chandpur *via* Laksam. From Chandpur to Goalundo there is steamer service *via* Narayanganj as in above. Direct railway route is also available from Dacca and Chittagong to Darsana *via* Jagannathganj and Sirajganj.

The Pakistan Eastern Railway is connected with the Indian railways at eight points, but most of the traffic, until the Indian attack in September 1965, used to pass through Darsana, Banpur, on to Calcutta.

Pakistan Western Railway

Principal routes of the Pakistan Western Railways are as follows:

Peshawar to Karachi: The line covers nearly the two extremes in north and south. The distance is 1,045 miles. On the way are Rawalpindi, Jhelum, Lala Musa, Lahore, Multan, Bahawalpur, Khairpur and Hyderabad. From Lala Musa there is also an alternative route through Sargodha and Lyallpur.

Karachi to Quetta: This runs through the Bolan Pass *via* Kotri, Dadu, Jacobabad, Sibi and Spezand. The mileage is 533.

Rohri to Chaman: The line, 327 miles long, passes through Habibkot and Quetta.

Lahore to Mari Indus: This line runs through Lyallpur, Sargodha and Kundian.

The railway connexion with India in this wing until the war of September 1965 was at Wagha-Atari in the north, and at Khokhrapar-Munabao, towards the south.

Traffic

Passengers

During 1964-65 some 203 million people travelled by train, a little under two-thirds of them in West Pakistan. Each travelled an average of 27 miles in East and 47½ miles in West Pakistan. Out of every 200 passengers, only one travelled first or second class, 12 took inter class and 187 third class. The passengert raffic made up 33.8 per cent of the Eastern Railway's revenues, and 37.1 per cent of the Western.

The passenger traffic on the Eastern Railway had been consistently increasing from year to year since the middle of the Fifties until 1964-65 when there was a drop over the previous year's figure. The percentage increase since 1950 is of the order of 68. The Western Railway has recorded a continuous rise without interruption. The increase over 1950 figure is 53 per cent.

Although the traffic pattern has been changing in favour of other modes of transport, the Third Plan anticipates that the Railways will carry about 30 per cent of the additional freight traffic generated during this period, and 15 per cent of the additional passenger traffic.

Freight

Freight carried during 1964-65 was 20½ million tons, a little over

two-third of it by the Western Railway. The total mileage over which it was handled was 5,834 million. Freight made up 52.7 per cent of the Eastern Railway's revenues and 55.1 per cent of the Western. The freight carried by the former consisted of foodgrains, coal and coke, jute, railway stores, fruits and vegetables, marble and stones, cement, petroleum products, salt, iron and steel. That carried by the Western Railway was mainly foodgrains, stone, coal, firewood and cement.

Employees

The Pakistan Railways have a total of nearly 190,000 employees working in various capacities. Over 68 per cent of them are employed on the Western and the remaining on the Eastern Railways. Department-wise, the engineering department on both the systems has the highest number: about 60 per cent. Next is the traffic department which claims over 25 per cent of all employees in the Eastern and over 11 per cent in the Western Railways.

Training

There are training schools in both the provinces meant for new recruits and for refresher courses for older hands. In East Pakistan the main school is at Lalmanirhat, with an average roll of 800. In West Pakistan the Walton Training School enrols over 2,200 trainees annually, and has arrangements for some advanced training. Among the categories of staff trained are station masters, guards, signalmen, switchmen, ticket examiners, collectors, drivers and shunters, telegraphists and commercial clerks. There is also a diesel school in East Pakistan (at Pahartali) which imparts training in operation and maintenance of diesel electric locomotives. The polytechnic institutes at Tejgaon (Dacca) and Chittagong have arrangements for giving training in mechanical and electrical courses. The workshops at Pahartali and Saidpur train trade apprentices.

The Walton school at Lahore has within its premises the Regional Railway Training Centre which was originally set up by UNESCO, but was taken over by the Pakistan government in 1958. It imparts advanced training in railway operation and signalling to trainees from countries of the Middle East, Far East and South East Asia as well as from Pakistan. It has a well equipped model room containing the latest equipment used on advanced railway systems abroad.

Welfare

Both Railways provide numerous facilities for their staff. These include housing, medical, educational and recreational arrangements. There are elected works committees on each Railway which discuss all issues relating to staff welfare. The two trade unions on each railway are strong bodies, very alive to the rights and requirements of their members.

ROADS AND ROAD TRANSPORT

Equally with railways, road transportation is important for inland traffic of both passenger and goods. With its flexibility of operation and door-to-door accessibility, road transport provides an efficient and economical means of moving small consignments of

perishable and fragile goods, and short-haul traffic of all descriptions. It connects otherwise isolated rural areas at low cost and complements other modes of transport by collecting and distributing both passenger and goods traffic at rail-heads, sea and air ports. It also supplements railways and waterways by providing an alternate cheap means of transport and relieving congestion on busy routes. This mode of transport is particularly suitable for such economies where a large number of small production units is scattered over vast areas, as do the numerous villages in this country. Most of the farm produce is carried by tnis means from villages to the markets; so are the raw materials to factories, and manufactured goods to all urban and rural areas.

Road Development

Roads occupy an especially important place in a developing country like Pakistan because of their wide geographical coverage and smaller capital investment. They can be developed in stages according to traffic requirements. The highway system can include both low type facilities built for light traffic and main highways for heavy commercial traffic. A few decades ago most of the roads were unmetalled and were used by bullock carts and pack animals. During the rainy season they became impassable because of mud pools and standing water. With the development of trade and industry, and due to planned efforts since independence, most of the roads connecting big cities and towns have been metalled. The road systems of the two wings of the country have their own characteristics because of different topographical and geographical conditions.

The pattern of transport in *East Pakistan* is characterised by the water courses of the gigantic rivers of the sub-continent. The province is physically divided into an eastern and western part by the Brahmaputra river which runs from north to south. The western half of the province is further sub-divided into northern and southern portion by the Ganges (Padma) which enters from the west and joins the Brahmaputra in the Centre of the Province. The whole province is criss-crossed by several main rivers, together with their innumerable tributaries and distributaries running from north to south. Whereas these main rivers provide good means of inland water transport from north to south they also present a formidable task for construction of roads and bridges across these rivers. The courses of all these rivers are the major obstacle to a road-system in the province. Often the main Trunk Road breaks off at the river banks where these are connected by means of ferries.

At the time of independence, black-topped roads were nearly non-existent in the province. At that time scarcely 240 miles could be classified as all-weather roads. Others were merely tracks and paths which were under water during the rainy season and thus became impassable. The absence of any road system worked as a barrier to mobility resulting in the greatest hindrance to growth and economic

development of the province. Therefore, the development of road system in the province had to start from the beginning. Efforts had to be made to do this in a way so as to provide main arteries of traffic between major centres of economic activity, to connect rural areas with market centres, divisional, district and *thana* headquarters, and also to provide access to land and property. The First Five-Year Plan allocated Rs 165 million for this purpose, and during its period (1955-60), 570 miles of all-weather roads were completed. During the Second Plan period, 968 miles of all-weather roads were completed. The mileage of high type roads was raised from 240 in 1947 to 1,859 by 1965. The Third Plan lays still greater emphasis on the development of roads in the province, and has allocated Rs 1,100 million for the purpose. It envisages construction of another 1,283 miles of new roads and improvement of 300 miles of existing roads, besides bridging some of the major rivers. The emphasis in both the Second and Third Plans has been on the completion of main Trunk Roads around which to build a subsidiary network. Five main Trunk Roads have almost been completed.

Side by side, feasibility studies of eleven major roads have been made and other such studies for construction of bridges over the rivers Buriganga at Dacca, Karnaphuli at Chittagong and Pussur at Rupsa have been undertaken. Highway consultants have also been engaged to help the Highway Directorate in the execution of road and bridge development programmes.

In *West Pakistan*, roads occupy a more important place because of the easy terrain of the province. Roads here feed the railways by collecting and distributing both goods and passenger traffic at the rail heads. Unlike East Pakistan where inland water transport and roads share a considerable proportion of inland traffic besides railways, in West Pakistan roads are the only alternative to railways; inland water transport is almost non-existent here. The roads in West Pakistan both supplement and complement the railways. The oldest major artery of the sub-continent, i.e. the Grand Trunk Road built by Sher Shah Suri in the 16th century, passes through this province.

Unfortunately, the development of roads in the province suffered from neglect under foreign rulers. Whatever roads were built, were for strategic purposes, i.e. for the movement of troops to frontier regions or for the development of the hinterland near the sea-ports to meet imperial trade interests. This pattern of transport development ignored internal growth requirements.

At the time of independence there were 13,781 miles of roads in the province, of which 5,050 miles were all-weather and 8,731 miles of low type. Most of these roads were concentrated in the former provinces of the Punjab and N.W.F.P. These roads were narrow in width and below the standards of present day traffic requirements. Moreover, they had fallen into disrepair due to long neglect and extensive utilisation during the Second World War. Thus, while there was a pressing need for the construction of new roads to meet the

growing needs of the economy, there was a threat of the existing roads disappearing unless heavy repairs were carried out. Therefore, concerted efforts were made not only to construct new roads but to maintain and improve those existing. From 1947 to the beginning of the First Five-Year Plan, the road mileage increased from 13,781 to 19,120 (7,980 miles all-weather and 11,122 low type). At the end of the First Plan period the road mileage in the Province stood at 19,176 of which 8,772 miles were all-weather and 10,404 miles, low type. The mileage of low type roads decreased due to conversion of low type into all-weather roads.

The Second Plan allocated Rs 275 million (against Rs 195 million in the First) for the construction and improvement of roads in the province. During the Plan period 2,129 miles of road were completed of which 1,310 miles were black top, 320 miles shingle and 499 miles low type. In addition, 177 miles of existing roads were improved. The road mileage at the end of the Second Plan increased to 21,758 (9,971 miles all-weather and 11,787 miles low type). The Third Plan has laid still greater emphasis on the development of roads in the province and has allocated Rs 900 million for the purpose. The programme envisages construction of 1,325 miles of roads, including 300 miles of high type and reconditioning and widening of 200 miles of existing roads, as well as completion of work on the improvement of 900 miles of Karachi-Quetta-Zahidan Road. Besides bridges over river Jhelum, river Ravi (one near Lahore, and the other near Chichawatni), river Indus (near Thatta) and over river Sutlej (near Bahawalpur) are under construction.

The figures of road mileage do not reveal the considerable work done on the improvement of existing roads. Since most of the roads were built according to age-old specifications which have now become out-dated, these roads have become sub-standard and incapable of meeting present day traffic requirements. All the important roads are being re-built on modern standards taking into account present and future traffic requirements. Among the important projects in hand are included the construction of a highway between Karachi and Hyderabad which will reduce the present distance by about 30 miles. Plans are also in progress for the construction of Lahore-Multan, Lahore-Lyallpur and Sheikhupura-Sargodha highways.

In order to gear up road development work in the Province, highway consultants have been engaged to help the provincial Highway Department in the execution of road and bridge projects as well as to provide training to local engineers to enable them to shoulder higher responsibilities in the future.

Although the construction and maintenance of roads is a provincial responsibility, the central government has a vital interest in it because of national and international requirements. The centre extends assistance to the provincial and state governments through the Central Road Fund which was established in 1949 by earmarking a portion of the central excise and customs duty on motor spirit other than aviation

spirit. The rate of contribution was later enhanced in 1953 from $2\frac{1}{2}$ *annas* to 5 *annas* or 31 *paisa* a gallon. 85 per cent of the Fund is allocated to the provinces and states for financing wholly or partly the construction of road and bridge projects of national or international importance. The balance of 15 per cent is retained by the centre as Central Reserve to meet expenditure on road research, traffic survey and experiment works.

INLAND WATERWAYS

Inland waterways are the principal medium of transport in East Pakistan, and in certain parts of it the only medium. This transport accounts for about three-quarters of the total traffic of this wing, and during flood seasons it is the only means of inter-communication for the numerous villages situated near the banks of the Padma (Ganges), the Jamuna and the Meghna. The mechanised transport on these rivers consist of a fleet of 2,200 steamers, motor vessels, launches and dumb-craft, with a total carrying capacity of 107,000 passengers and 214,220 tons of cargo. The fleet is owned by some 500 operators. Launches carry 85 per cent of the freight, steamers the rest. In addition there are thousands of country boats with a carrying capacity of $1\frac{1}{2}$ million passengers and $1\frac{1}{2}$ million tons of freight. They carry about five times the traffic handled by mechanised transport.

Administration

Mechanised water transport was a concurrent subject in the pre-independence sub-continent. It means that while the administration was the sole responsibility of the province, legislation could be affected by both the provinces and the central government. Pakistan's first Constitution of 1956 made it a provincial subject, and the second Constitution has continued this arrangement. An important change made by the new government in 1958 was to set up a statutory autonomous body for unifying the various functions pertaining to inland navigation, called the Inland Water Transport Authority. The Authority is headed by a board of five members, one of whom is the Chairman. The establishment comprises seven departments, *viz.* the secretariat, accounts and finance, conservancy and field work, engineering, ports, planning and traffic, and an advisory committee consisting of representatives of defence and other government departments, and the authorities of the sea ports and the IWT industry.

The Authority generates its own finances by levying certain tolls. In addition, it shares with provincial government half of the revenues accruing to it from the tolls and taxes imposed on carrying capacity and fares and freights. The total revenue of IWTA during 1965-66 was Rs 5.635 million.

Development

Until recently inland transport had suffered from decades of neglect, partly because, unlike other media of transport, it was in the private sector, and partly because there was diversity of command and control in this sphere. The situation was considerably remedied by the establishment of the IWTA in November 1958. Since then there has been considerable progress.

TABLE 34
PROGRESS OF IWTA

	Position in 1960	Position in June 1966	Percentage increase since 1960
Mechanically propelled vessels	821	1,340	63
Dumb Craft	696	832	20
Route Mileage	3,373	4,984	48
Shipbuilding Yard	9	62	688
No. of Operators	210	475	226
No. of IWT Routes	140	261	86
No. of Stations Served	1,148	1,407	23
Cargo carrying capacity (in ton)	15,819	214,229	40
Passenger carrying capacity	80,836	107,000	32
Freight ton miles (million)	217	307	41
Coastal Ships	—	4	400
L.C.T. Vessels	—	2	200

Source : *Ministry of Communications*

During 1960-65 an expenditure of Rs. 316.11 million (Rs 134.11 million in the public sector and Rs 182.00 million in the private sector) was incurred on the development schemes of the Authority. These development schemes included, *inter alia*, provision of navigational facilities on the waterways, the provision of a workshop at Barisal, the development of the inland parts of Dacca, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Khulna and Barisal, and of certain waterways for facilitating traffic on them, the provision of landing stages for launch passenger traffic, ferries on important roads, a salvage unit, and vessels for connecting the off-shore islands with the mainland. The schemes of the private sector included modernisation, mechanisation and replacement of inland water transport fleet, modernisation and development of slipways and dockyards.

River Ports

There are five major river ports, Dacca, Narayanganj, Chandpur, Barisal and Khulna, and 1,407 launch stations, which handle more than 20 million passengers and 2.4 million tons of cargo every year. These ports and river stations are located on 4,800 miles of navigable waterways.

A scheme to build ports and river stations on modern lines was taken up by the Authority.

The first river port to have a terminal was Narayanganj, one of the most important trading and business centres of East Pakistan. The launch passenger terminal, constructed at a cost of two million rupees, consists of a two-storied building and two floating pontoons with a total length of 200 feet for berthing of passengers launches. The ground floor of the building provides waiting and seating accom-

modation and has all modern amenities for the travelling public. The terminal handles more than 6,000 passengers every day and 40 launches touch the pontoons daily.

The work on the construction of other major river ports has progressed considerably. The terminal building of Dacca river port, namely, Sadarghat, and the floating pontoons to be placed in front of the terminal for berthing passenger launches, are ready. The terminal will handle more than 40,000 passengers daily. The number of launches to berth at the pontoons will be 100 every day.

The launch passenger terminal at Chandpur is also completed. The terminal consists of a building and two large floating pontoons for berthing of launches.

Barisal river port has been provided with a floating terminal to offer immediate convenience to launch passengers. Six floating pontoons with gangways were placed at the terminal and the approach road to the foreshore has been built.

The work on a 2,000 feet long quay wall and a two-storied building at Khulna has been completed. The quay will be used by cargo vessels to load and unload cargo. The building with two stages for berthing of passenger launches will provide terminal and landing facilities to launch passengers.

Besides implementing schemes for providing landing facilities to 10 million people who travel by launch every year, a number of jetties for handling cargo were constructed at Dacca, Narayanganj and Khulna river ports. These jetties serve various types of craft such as coastal ships, barges and flats.

River Survey

Another scheme which is nearing completion is the introduction of Dacca Chain Radio Location System, the most modern method of surveying the rivers by electronics. This device helps to survey the rivers accurately and in the shortest possible time. Under the scheme a master station at Comilla and three slave stations at Mymensingh, Jessore and Chittagong have been set up by the Authority. These stations will cover the whole province except the northern parts of East Pakistan.

Marine Workshop

A small marine workshop set up in 1960 to manufacture, assemble and repair navigational aids such as buoys, beacons and other river and shore marks and survey vessels, was set up in Barisal in 1960. As the development work progressed it was found that the workshop was to be expanded and equipped with more machinery and a slipway to meet the requirements. The workshop now not only caters to the needs of the Authority but also executes outside jobs.

Training

Considering the manpower requirements of mechanically propelled vessels, modernisation of fleet and greater skill required to operate the fleet efficiently and economically, a feasibility study was conducted by an ILO expert for the establishment of a training centre in East

Pakistan. The study has proposed setting up of a shore establishment and acquisition of a training ship for vocational training of the crew, and a project has been prepared on these lines. A centre for the training of mechanics of mechanically propelled vessels already exists at Narayanganj.

Shipping Corporation

The establishment of the East Pakistan Shipping Corporation was an important step towards the improvement of inland water transport system in East Pakistan. The Corporation, which started functioning in March 1964 runs coastal vessels for passengers and cargo and operates ferries. It will establish and maintain a dockyard and a repair workshop. The coastal services of the Corporation now in operation are: Narayanganj to Chittagong, Chittagong to Cox's Bazar, and Chittagong to Khulna. The ferries link the road-heads between Daudkandi-Narayanganj, Aricha and Nagarbari and Aricha-Goalundo.

Service

Narayanganj-Chittagong Service: The provision of regular services to the off-shore islands situated in the Meghna Estuary, was a long-standing necessity. The access was difficult even in fair weather, not to speak of the monsoon season. Before the introduction of these services, a few vessels plied between these islands and the mainland, but the service was neither regular nor safe in bad weather. This service is helpful also in rushing relief to the islands which are frequently ravaged by cyclones and storms.

The ships on this route ply every alternate day and have a carrying capacity of 272 passengers of all classes and 200 tons of cargo. They touch Chandpur, Barisal, Ilisghat, Ramgati, Hatiya and Sandwip on the way.

Chittagong-Cox's Bazar Service: This service provides regular communication facilities to the people of the coastal areas of Dhurung, Sanua, Bhola, Maghnama, Kutubdia, Ujantia, Matarbari, Badarkhali, J. M. Ghat and Adinath. The vessels have a carrying capacity of 200 passengers and 50 tons of cargo. The thrice weekly service on the route serves the coastal areas.

Chittagong-Khulna Service: The fortnightly passenger and cargo service between the important industrial and commercial towns of East Pakistan, Chittagong and Khulna, facilitates transportation of cargo and passengers. The ships on this route call at Sandwip, Hatiya and Ramgati.

Ferry Services: The ferries run by the East Pakistan Shipping Corporation have connected important highways and road-heads in the province. The routes are: Narayanganj-Daudkandi, Aricha-Nagarbari and Aricha-Goalundo. The large ferries have a carrying capacity of 100 passengers, four loaded trucks and four cars, and the smaller ferries carry two loaded trucks, two cars and 50 passengers. The Narayanganj-Daudkandi Service connects one of the most important routes in East Pakistan. The large ferries which ply on this route provide a direct link between Chittagong and Dacca for passenger, cargo and

vehicular traffic. The ferries plying on Aricha-Nagarbari and Aricha-Goalundo routes have, for the first time in the history of road and river transportation, connected the capital with both northern and southern districts.

Twenty-seven river-cum-sea vessels have been purchased by the private sector for carrying cargo from the outer anchorage of the Port of Chittagong to inland river stations. This has been done to relieve the congestion of cargo at Chittagong Port, and to lighten ships of more than permissible draft.

SHIPPING

Starting with a fleet of three old ships, and a total dead weight of about 18 thousand tons, Pakistan today has 62 ships and a tonnage of nearly half a million. The number of ships is expected to be increased to about 100 by 1970, which will cater for 40 per cent of Pakistani sea import and all normal exchange trade.

Administration

Since independence control of national shipping and formulation of policies in respect to it had vested in the Ministry of Commerce. It was transferred to Ministry of Communication in 1960 in pursuance of the Maritime Commission's recommendation. The following year a Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping was set up for co-ordinating the two subjects and implementating government's shipping policy.

Shipping Policy

The shipping policy as announced in September 1963, stressed an increased participation of Pakistani ships on the existing and new foreign routes, modernisation of the existing fleet, re-organisation of domestic service, and streamlining of all procedures and practices. To encourage shipping industry incentives were provided. There was an increase from 20 to 30 per cent in the bonus entitlement on foreign exchange earnings from shipping; exemption of fuel, oil and lubricants usedon the inter-wing service from customs duty and sales tax; subsidy to the national ship building industry; general reduction of inter-wing freight rates; and introduction of special inducement rate in respect of certain commodities. The Second Plan provision of Rs 103 million was enhanced to Rs 380 million and a shipping corporation was also set up in the private sector with a 25 percent government share.

Ownership

National Shipping Corporation

As a major step towards promoting the growth of efficient shipping, and also to carry out activities ancillary to it government set up in the semi-public sector, in 1963, a statutory autonomous body, the National Shipping Corporation. The government's share was 25 per cent and the remaining 75 per cent was subscribed by the public equally in East and West Pakistan.

The Corporation runs on commercial lines. Its affairs are managed by a number of directors, among whom non-officials have a majority.

By the end of May 1966, the National Shipping Corporation had purchased 18 ships. Two of them were still under construction in West Germany. Since its service began in March 1964 upto the end of

October 1966 it had carried nearly one million tons of cargo on foreign routes and 135 thousand tons on domestic routes. From its operation on international routes, the Corporation saved about Rs 42½ million in foreign exchange, made a net profit of over Rs 17 million upto June 1965 and paid a dividend of 10 per cent to its shareholders.

Shipping Companies

There are 13 shipping companies, including the Shipping Corporation which is biggest in both number and tonnage of ships. The next two own seven ships each and have respective dead weight tonnages of 72,875 and 65,432. Three have five ships each with tonnages of 53,785 and 50,282.

Shipping Routes

Pakistani ships handle the entire sea borne trade between the two wings of the country. The national Haj traffic is also fully carried by Pakistani ships. In addition, these ships operate the following routes:

(*a*) Pakistan—U.K.—North Continent (as member of Conference Lines)
(*b*) Pakistan—U.S.A.
(*c*) Pakistan—East Africa
(*d*) Pakistan—Baltic Sea
(*e*) Pakistan—Singapore—HongKong—China—Japan (As member of Conference Lines)
(*f*) Pakistan—Persian Gulf
(*g*) Pakistan—Red Sea Ports
(*h*) Pakistan (Eastern Wing)—Burma

International Co-operation

Conference Lines

Pakistan has agreements with shipping companies of other countries operating on the same routes aimed to secure standardisation and stability of rates, and to maintain frequency and regularity of services. The main principle of such collaboration, called 'Conference', is establishment of a common schedule and tariff or passenger fares from each port of departure. There are two important international routes on which Pakistani ships operate as a member of the Conference Lines.

RCD

The agreement on Regional Co-operation for Development between Iran, Pakistan and Turkey covers a joint shipping venture among these countries. This venture already in operation caters for all essential traffic between these countries, and fifty per cent of the trade between these countries and the U.S.A. The ships contributed by member countries are in the ratio of 10:7:3 by Pakistan, Turkey and Iran respectively.

IPECC

As part of the economic and cultural co-operation between Indonesia and Pakistan, an agreement has also been signed between the Shipping Corporation of Pakistan and the shipping organisations of Indonesia, "BIPALINDO" and "DJAKARTA LLOYDS", for a regular joint service between the two countries.

Pakistan-China Shipping Agreement

The Governments of Pakistan and China have, in October, 1966, entered into a Maritime Transport Agreement. Under the agreement 'most favoured nation treatment' will be accorded to ships of one party visiting ports of the other. Also, under the agreement the National Shipping Corporation and the China Ocean Shipping Company will establish a regular shipping service between Pakistan and China. This service may be extended to Africa.

Hajj Traffic

Until 1960, Pakistani pilgrims were solely dependent on foreign shipping lines for their transportation. Since then the acquisition by Pan Islamic Steamship Company of *Safina-e-Arab* in 1961 and *Safina-e-Hujjaj* in 1962, with a total passenger capacity of nearly 4,000, has eased the situation. One more ship is being acquired for Hajj traffic under the Third Plan.

Training

Starting with no officer and just 336 seamen, Pakistan today has nearly 200 officers and 7,220 seamen. Steps have been taken for expanding the training facilities. In addition to the various marine workshops in the private sector, the Karachi Port Trust and the Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works are also training engineering officers and tradesman. The Marine Engineering Academy at Chittagong, which started functioning in September 1962, is presently turning out fully trained Nautical and Engineering cadets. Training centres at Karachi and Chittagong are imparting in service training to seamen.

Ship Building

The Karachi Shipyard and Engineering Works (KSEW) does ship repairs and construction of small vessels for Pakistan and the neighbouring countries. Recently, it has started constructing large ocean-going vessels too. The KSEW is presently constructing a ship for a Pakistani shipping company.

Ship repair facilities also exist in the Khulna and Narayanganj shipyards. The current Plan envisages the setting up of a shipyard for building and repair of inland transport vessels and manufacture of marine diesel engines.

PORTS

There are at present three full-fledged ports in Pakistan at Karachi, Chittagong and Chalna. One more is to be developed.

Karachi

Karachi port is the only one catering to over 310,236 square miles of the area of West Pakistan. It also handles the seaborne trade of land-locked Afghanistan and Azad Kashmir.

It is also the chief port of Pakistan, a port of call for both ocean-going and coastal vessels, and is the home port of Pakistan's merchant navy fleet. The anchorage area of the port is 2,474 acres. There is a break-water wall at Manora, 1,150 feet long and 24 feet wide; on the eastern bank there is the Keamari groyne, 1½ miles in length. These two protect the harbour against littoral drifts and silting

caused by tidal action.

Management

The management of the port is vested by an Act of the Legislature in a board of trustees consisting of 11 members, including the Chairman. The Chairman is the executive trustee and is appointed by government for a prescribed period. The other trustees have normally a term of two years. The administration of the harbour and the port is under the direct control of the Chairman of the Board of Trustees, who is assisted by the Principal Officers-in-charge of various branches. Revenues are derived from charges levied on the use of the harbour facilities, wharves, appliances, workshops and for other services rendered to vessels and goods.

Port Facilities

The port has the following facilities:

(*a*) Channel with a length of 4.27 mile.

(*b*) Shipping berths, totalling 17 on the east and four on the west side.

(*c*) Two oil piers, one 403 feet long but capable of berthing bigger tankers of 550 feet also. A newly constructed berth is 644 feet in length.

(*d*) Boat wharf with 20 berths.

(*e*) Ten fixed moorings both for cargo handling and anchoring ships, and three swinging moorings for light drafted vessels.

(*f*) Boat basin providing ferry transport for public and the Port Trust.

(*g*) Ship repairing berth for merchant navy ships not involving dry docking.

In addition to these there are the other normal facilities such as rail and road connections for cargo, special equipment for cargo handling, ancillary craft, open storage area, etc.

With increasing trade this port is handling more cargo every year. Provision has, therefore, to be made for additional berths. The World Bank gave a second loan of 17½ million dollars for the Karachi Port Project. During 1964-65 and 1965-66 the cargo was over 7.8 and 7.06 million tons respectively, which was an increase of more than 33 per cent over the previous year. Passenger traffic is also increasing: the increase was 148,468 during the period.

Chittagong

The port of Chittagong is situated on the northern and western banks of the river Karnaphuli, on the north-eastern shore of the Bay of Bengal. The main port installations are 9 miles from the mouth of the river. The channel width varies between 1,100 and 670 feet.

Administration

Like Karachi Port, the Chittagong one also has a board of 11 trustees including a chairman, consisting of government nominees and public representatives drawn from various commercial organisations concerned with the activities of the port. Controlled by the Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping, the Board possesses fiscal and administrative autonomy as provided in the Port Act, 1914.

Port Facilities

There are 14 permanent jetties ranging in face length from 435 feet to 630 feet, and some light/pontoon jetties and moorings. Adequate cargo handling and storage facilities are also available. Other facilities include availability of fresh water, fuel oil, harbour craft, lighterage fleet, fire protection installation and very high frequency radio network.

Development

Beginning with only four jetties and 50,000 square feet of covered space Chittagong port came face to face almost overnight with the challenge of catering to the needs of the eastern wing of Pakistan. It was called upon to handle the entire sea-borne trade of jute from East Pakistan, the world's largest jute producing area. This underdeveloped port, which had suffered the strain of the second World War w .s obliged to develop its capacity and resources very quickly. Short term and long term plans were accordingly drawn up and completed by the end of 1958 raising the handling capacity of the Port to 2½ million tons along with expansion of shore installation and facilities, storage space, etc. More recently river training and river lighting works have also been undertaken and major schemes are underway to rehabilitate the old jetties; the construction of a 1,200-ton slipway with supporting workshop and an offshore terminal for discharge of crude oil is also in hand. The current Five-Year Plan envisages even bigger projects, including re-construction on a permanent basis of four light and pontoon jetties, construction of two new jetties, training of the river, facilities for handling lighterage cargo and coal, construction of new transit sheds and warehouses, and additions to harbour craft, navigational aids, cargo handling equipment and so on. A master plan for the development of this port for requirements upto 1985 has been entrusted to a foreign firm of consultants.

During 1964-65 and 1965-66 the port handled a tonnage of 3.29 and 3.64 million respectively, against half million tons at independence. During 1963-64 the increase was even higher, i.e. 3.86 million tons. The passenger traffic in 1964-65 was 44,683. The annual income has been increasing, and also the expenditure. The income in 1964-65 was for the first time less than the expenditure, being nearly Rs 51 million, against Rs 58 million. This was chiefly due to a rise in development expenditure.

Chalna

To share the enhanced burden of the Chittagong port an anchorage was established early on Pussur river. First started on an experimental basis at the end of 1950, the site has had to be shifted twice; the present one, nine miles south of Chalna, was finally settled on in June 1954. Since then the anchorage has been operating satisfactorily. The hinterland is served mainly by inland water transport vessels which load and unload cargo into and from ocean-going vessels at the anchorage.

Administration

The port is directly controlled by the central government through a port director and his staff. There is also an advisory com-

mittee of nine, which includes the port director as chairman. Four of the other eight members of this committee are non-officials, representing the inland water transport operators, the shipowners, the foreign shipping companies using the anchorage and the provincial Chamber of Commerce and Trade.

Anchorage Facilities

The anchorage has four swinging moorings where vessels are made fast with their own cables. Eleven more ships can be safely anchored within a four miles working range. There are pilot and survey vessels, despatch launches, harbour tugs, and other navigational facilities. Very high frequency telephone communication is available. Recent acquisitions and construction include: one self-propelled barge and workshop equipment; ground tackle for five moorings, and a fresh water reversion, a jetty at Mangla and electric generators for supply to the port staff and town-ship at Mangla.

Development

Chalna Anchorage is now to be developed into a permanent port. A master plan has been prepared for this, the first phase of which is now under implementation. By 1970 the following work is planned to be completed: construction of eight general cargo berths, and of a foodgrain, a bulk cargo and an oil terminal; development of residential and administrative areas; extension of the road and railway line from Khulna to the port head, a distance of 28 miles, and construction of a rail-cum-road bridge over the Rupsa river.

Traffic

Although with a rated handling capacity of only 1½ million tons of cargo annually, the Anchorage, like the other two ports, has also exceeded its figures. During 1963-64 it handled 1.66 million tons. The following year there was a considerable drop because of stoppage of import of foodgrain. But in 1965-66 the volume of traffic rose to 1.75 million tons. The number of ships that called here during this year was 469.

CIVIL AVIATION

Civil Aviation has made very rapid progress since independence. Karachi was the country's only international airport Navigational aids were almost non-existent, and the conditions from personnel to equipment and from runway to aircraft were all very poor. Beginning with so little civil aviation in Pakistan has developed very rapidly in recent years. Expansion, both in fleet and coverage, is now a continuous process. The primary incentive for this rate of progress came from the fact that the country was divided into two provinces a thousand miles apart, and a most developed communication system between them, which was quick, frequent and efficient, was vital both for administrative and social reasons. The outward expansion became a part of this process.

Pakistan International Airlines (PIA)

Pakistan International Airlines, established in 1956, is the sole air transport agency of Pakistan. It is a successor of Orient Airways which was established in 1946 by a group of people who had anticipated the birth of Pakistan. With headquarters at Calcutta it originally

operated between that city and Rangoon, in Burma. It was also the first international flight originating from the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. After independence Orient Airways discontinued its service to Rangoon, transferred its headquarters to Karachi, and began a series of flight for refugees from Delhi to Karachi and Lahore. It also started domestic services, forming the only link between East and West Pakistan. Flying *via* New Delhi its Convairs made the journey in nine hours. In one year this service increased from once, weekly, to seven, and its monthly mileage from 42,000 to 165,000. Another landmark in the brief history of PIA's predecessor was its flights since 1949 to Gilgit and Skardu, considered one of aviation's most formidable routes. High on the Himalayan mountains these towns are cut off in winter because of heavy snow. In summer the camel or mule journey takes three weeks. Orient Airway's DC 3s made the journey in one hour twenty minutes, winding through mountain gorges too narrow for an aircraft to turn back in, and past the 26,000 feet Nanga Parbat mountain. They carried to the villages essential supplies such as wheat, rice, fuel, kerosene and salt.

It was later decided to organise the national airlines as a government department. Thus came the Pakistan International Airlines, and a year later Orient Airways was merged with it.

Organisation

Pakistan International Airlines Corporation is an autonomous public corporation with a board of directors. The president of the PIA is also the chief administrator of the Departments of Civil Aviation and Tourism.

Finances

Since 1959, the PIA has been showing consistently increasing profits. The year 1964-65 showed an operating profit of Rs 49.22 million, nearly 55 per cent of the paid up capital. After meeting losses on the services flown in the interest of national development, providing for bad and doubtful debts paying interest charges on loans, and distributing staff bonuses, the net profit was over 37 million rupees against 25 million rupees for the preceding year.

Service

Flight

PIA is responsible for the operation of all air routes within the country and all international air services originating in Pakistan. It serves important cities of East and West Pakistan, including such difficult points of access as Gilgit, Chitral and Skardu. It has daily services between the two wings of the country, connecting Rawalpindi, Lahore and Karachi with Dacca. Interwing flight fares are heavily subsidised. On international routes it covers the Asian, African and European continents.

PIA began operation in 1954 with its non-stop service between Karachi, Lahore and Dacca using three Super Constellations. Next, it inaugurated a Karachi-Cairo-Rome-London service with Super Constellations.

Meanwhile Orient Airways continued to operate the domestic routes until the two airlines were merged. By 1959 Vickers Viscounts started operating in West Pakistan, and the following year the Fokker Friendship was introduced on East-West Pakistan routes. In March 1960, the first jet service on the Karachi-Tehran-Beirut-Rome-Geneva-London route was started. North America and Frankfurt were added to the network the following year. In 1961-62 PIA purchased its own Boeing 720B jets, replacing the Lockheed Super Constellation, and in 1964, three British Tridents. These Tridents have, since 1965, replaced the Viscount in West Pakistan and the Boeings on the Dacca-Lahore route. The flight to London is now routed *via* Moscow and Frankfurt. One of the services connects Dacca, Canton and Shanghai, and another has been diverted through Kabul. By extending its Dacca services to Canton and Shanghai, PIA became the first international airline in the world to operate to the Peoples' Republic of China. There are also scheduled services to Burma and Nepal, expansion to France, Turkey, Persian Gulf, East Africa and the Far East. At the moment, PIA jet services operate to Tehran, Dahran, Kuwait, Beirut, Rome, Geneva, Moscow, Frankfurt, London and Cairo in the West, and Canton and Shanghai in the East. Nepal and Burma are connected with Dacca by Fokker Services. Peshawar and Kabul are also connected by scheduled services operated by Fokker aircraft. Due to the September war PIA services to Calcutta, Delhi and Bombay have been suspended. India has not so far agreed to the resumption of the air services on reciprocal basis. The recent points on PIA's route are Saudi Arabia, Turkey, East Africa and Thailand

Air Bus Service

To provide fast and cheap transport in East Pakistan PIA has introduced 'air bus' services. At fares which are about the lowest in the world, these services go from one town to another throughout the region. Another facility is provided by helicopters which cover a network of 2,000 miles in East Pakistan bringing all parts of the region within 1½ hours flying time of Dacca. A 36 miles journey between Dacca and Faridpur, for instance, has been reduced from 22 hours by surface transport to 17 minutes by air; 25 hours between Dacca and Khulna are now cut to 48 minutes.

The following places in East Pakistan are linked by air: Dacca, Khulna, Faridpur, Chandpur, Begumganj, Barisal, Bhola, Hatia, Sandwip, Chittagong, Sirajganj, Bogra, Rangpur, Dinajpur, Ishardi, Sylhet, Cox's Bazar, Jessore, Comilla, Kushtia and Rajshahi.

Correspondingly, in West Pakistan 'feeder services' have been introduced which link remote regions with principal cities. Thus, places like Panjgur, Pasni, Gawadar, Jiwani, Nawabshah, Moenjodaro, Rahimyar Khan and Sukkur have already come within the flying range of main cities like Karachi and Hyderabad. The link with the Makran coast is a significant achievement. Hitherto the coast was linked by sporadic boat trips and a long circuitous road. Other areas

to be similarly connected soon include Saidu Sharif, D. I. Khan, Mianwali and Sargodha.

Regular services also operate between Karachi, Hyderabad, Quetta, Multan, Lyallpur, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Peshawar. Besides Feeder Services, PIA runs scheduled services to almost all northern areas, such as Gilgit, Skardu and Chitral.

Traffic

During 1964-65 a total of 824,722 passengers were flown in PIA planes. The largest traffic was by international services (30 per cent) followed by East Pakistan domestic flights (17 per cent), West Pakistan domestic flights (14.6 per cent). Air cargo and mail packages at nearly 53 million pounds had increased by 12½ per cent over the preceding year. Of this 26.2 million pounds were flown on the interwing routes.

Information and Traffic Control

Air traffic control measures have been revised to bring them in consonance with the changed traffic situation. New flight information centres have been established at Dacca and Lahore in 1962. These Centres along with the Centre at Karachi provide flight information to aircraft flying in their respective regions. Radar Control Service has been provided at Karachi Terminal area which is responsible for controlling the entire traffic operating within 50 miles, and has therefore eased the complex traffic situation.

In consultation with neighbouring countries new air routes have been developed to provide shorter and safe routings for flights coming into and radiating out of Karachi and Dacca.

Civil and military air traffic co-ordination procedures have been evolved and a very close liaison maintained to ensure the common objective of safety of aircraft operating within the congested confines of Karachi Terminal Area.

As an international obligation, an aeronautical information service was set up for collecting, collating and disseminating aeronautical information. Pre-flight briefing units have been established at Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, which provide up to-date information on the flights radiating out from the centres, the operating conditions of navigational aids, the conditions of aerodromes and route information etc. An International Notam (Notice to airmen) Office is also established at Karachi Airport which receives Notams and disseminates them within Pakistan. It also sends out Notams from Pakistan to different countries of the world.

Flight Safety

Safety measures have been taken at aerodromes under a legislative enactment, namely Aircraft (Removal of Danger to Safety) Ordinance, 1965, by which powers have been conferred on airport managers to check and remove sources of danger. Bird shooters responsible for killing and scaring birds and dogs have been employed at every airport. Other measures are also taken to ensure safety of flights.

A special cell, namely the Flight Inspection Division has been

created in the Department of Civil Aviation which conducts theoretical and practical tests of candidates for the issue of different licences. The Division is also responsible for the investigation of aircraft accidents and for checking and evaluating flying standards in the country.

For the purpose of calibration of different Radio Navigational Aids as well as of other Landing Aids the Department of Civil Aviation maintains an aircraft which under a set programme checks and calibrates different aids to navigation and landing aids in the country. In accordance, with the results of the air calibration, aids are declared either serviceable or unserviceable as the case may be.

The Aeronautical Inspection Division of Department of Civil Aviation is responsible for ensuring the standard of maintenance and overhaul of engines and frames, besides investigation of aircraft defects, accidents, examination of flight personnel and issuing licences.

Training

The PIA maintains a highly trained engineering department which not only meet most of PIA's own needs but also undertakes repairs of foreign craft calling in Pakistan. To keep pace with airline fleet modernisation and expansion programme, the development of engineering facilities has been simultaneously pursued. The engineering department is made ready to receive any new additions to the fleet. A modern independent overhauling workshop has lately been built to meet the additional requirements.

With the development of airports, installation of sophisticated equipment, and general increase in air traffic, the demand for trained personnel in traffic control, communication operations and engineering has increased considerably.

Flight and ground personnel are given rigorous training so as to be ready to handle all aircraft. Annually over 350 courses are organized, attended by some 1,700 employees comprising flight crew and ground staff. Before obtaining the Tridents the complete conversion training for this flight was carried out entirely by the PIA school. A ground training school has also been set up in Dacca and pilots are being trained for the commercial pilot's licence. Other countries also use PIA's training facilities, and among them are China, Nepal, Iran and Nigeria.

During the past ten years over 400 persons have been trained in various branches of air traffic as well as service courses, including airway, radar specialisation, fire crash and rescue operation, radio technique, and communication operations and engineering.

In addition seventy five persons have received training abroad in aircraft inspection, maintenance and engineering, flight inspection, airport management, communication engineering and operations, headquarter organisation, aviation law, and so on. Personnel from other countries, such as Malaysia, South Korea, Laos and Philippines have also come to Pakistan for training. Some officers from Iran and Turkey, the RCD countries, have also recently received on-the-job

and theoretical training in radar control procedures.

Flying Clubs

There are six flying clubs in Pakistan, located at Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi, Multan and Peshawar. Recently Glider Flying has also been added to these clubs and the Government has provided gliders on loan to different clubs. One independent gliding club at Quetta is exclusively conducting basic and high performance gliding.

The hours flown since 1958 show an upward trend and also reflect the development of aero-clubs in Pakistan.

TABLE 35
PROGRESS OF AERO-CLUB

	1959	1965	1966 *upto Sept.*
Karachi	2,455	1989.05	1912.01
Dacca	3,136	1785.25	892.45
Lahore	3,902	1436.30	1451.15
Peshawar	1,158	1060.50	843.45
Multan	515	734.50	649.15
Rawalpindi	365	789.52	1100.20

Source : *Ministry of Defence*

These clubs are instrumental in providing courses in flying to young and air-minded people for fun and also to those who desire to make flying their profession. Licences issued since 1958 on the basis of tests conducted by Civil Aviation Department number nearly one thousand.

The clubs are primarily devoted to the development of amateur and sports flying. They have been producing the bulk of commercial pilots, including some for Iran, Nepal, and Burma. The clubs receive large financial assistance from the government and they are being further expanded and modernised with activities diversified under the present Plan.

International Agreements

The liability of air carriers on international flights is governed by International Private Law, *viz.*, Warsaw Convention, 1929, and the Hague Protocol, 1955, which amended the Warsaw Convention and increased the limit of liability of the air carrier to double of the limit laid down in the former Convention. Pakistan is a member of both Conventions. To give effect to the terms of the Warsaw Convention as amended at the Hague, in 1955, a Central Act, namely Carriage by Air (International Convention) Act, 1966, was enacted which makes it possible for the legal heirs of a Pakistani who is killed or injured in an air accident to claim compensation from the air carrier.

Soon after independence Pakistan notified its adherence to the Convention of International Civil Aviation. In December, 1947, it became a member of the International Civil Aviation Organization at Montreal, and also member of the Commonwealth Air Transport Council at London. The US, Netherlands and France were informed that the agreements negotiated between their Governments and the

Government of undivided *India* were accepted by Pakistan. Other air agreements with several countries followed in the succeeding year.

International air traffic to and through Pakistan is regulated by bilateral air service agreements between Pakistan and the countries concerned. So far air services agreements with 32 countries have been concluded, and at present 24 foreign airlines are operating scheduled air services to and through Pakistan.

The countries with which Pakistan has entered into agreements include: Afghanistan, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Ceylon, People's Republic of China, East African countries (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda), Ethiopia, France, West Germany, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Italy, Japan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Netherlands, Philippines, Poland, Portugal, Scandinavian countries (Norway, Sweden and Denmark), Switzerland, Syria, Turkey, United Arab Republic, United Kingdom, United States of America and Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Development of Airports

Beginning at independence with only one major airport at Karachi, and only a small quantity of equipment, Pakistan has developed several airports since then.

A 10,500 feet runway was put into operation at Karachi in 1960 to accommodate the jets transiting this airport. A new international jet airport at Dacca is also under construction at a cost of Rs 110 million. Jet airports for Lahore, Rawalpindi and Chittagong have been planned. An aerodrome at Hyderabad has been put into operation. Aerodromes at other places have been renovated for use by PIA Feeder Services, which include Sukkur, Rahimyar Khan, Pasni, Gwadar and Panjgur. Heliports were also constructed in East Pakistan to cater for PIA's helicopter services. Several schemes for the improvements of existing facilities have been completed at Lyallpur, Chitral, Comilla, Chittagong, and Gilgit. Runways at Comilla and Sylhet aerodromes were also recarpetted and Ishurdi runway was concreted for Fokker operations. Renovations were carried out at Chaklala to meet the jet traffic. The terminal building of the airport has been airconditioned to provide more facilities to the travelling public.

Substantial progress has been made towards the Master Planning of Islamabad international airport to cater for the air traffic needs of the capital.

The network of radio-communication and air navigation aids have been improved in both the wings to meet all the demands of a modern airport.

The Third Plan, while proposing urgent action for improvement and expansion of airports and other aviation facilities, has stressed the need for evolving economical methods of airport construction. For the newly emerging points on the expanding air network, at first purely utility type lending grounds and simplified facilities are to be provided. Elaborate arrangements are to come only after traffic build up.

Aircraft Registration and Air Worthiness

The Aeronautical Inspection Division of the Department of Civil Aviation is responsible for ensuring that an accepted standard of safety is observed in the maintenance and overhaul of Aircraft engines and frames and any modification made to aircraft. The Division is also responsible for the investigation of aircraft defects, incidents and accidents. This Division also conducts examination of Aircraft Maintenance Engineers and Flight Engineers in the country and issues licences to those who pass the examination. General technical examination of pilots is also conducted by this Division. The following number of Engineers have been granted licences so far:

Flight Engineers	69
Aircraft Maintenance Engineers	420

Aero Meteorological Service

It needs no emphasis that meteorology plays a vital role in aviation. The forecasting office of the Meteorological Department at Karachi Airport provides route forecasts, weather charts and briefing for pilots. This office also maintains actual weather reports issued by other Meteorological Stations and also provides significant meteorological information to aircraft in flight, Volmet broadcasts and other meteorological information of significance to aircraft operations.

Communications

Development of the communication system as also the provision of navigational aids is a *sine qua non* for the development of aviation. More low and high power non-directional beacons were installed recently at Chittagong, Jessore, Ishurdi, Sylhet, Cox's Bazar, Comilla in East Pakistan and Nawabshah, Jacobabad, Multan and Lyallpur in West Pakistan. Locator beacons were also installed at Ormara, Cape Minze, Gharo, Mughalbhim, Chor and Hyderabad for providing additional facilities for the safety of aircraft. In addition to the long distance navigational facilities like NDB, short distance navigational aids which are static free, were also installed to keep pace with the latest development in the aviation world. VOR (i.e. Very High Frequency Omni-Range) were installed at Karachi Airport, Panjgur, Jiwani, Nawabshah, Rahimyar Khan, Multan, Lahore, Rawalpindi in West Pakistan and Dacca, Chittagong, and Ishurdi in East Pakistan. These aids to aerial navigation provide a complete coverage for most of the international and domestic air routes over the territory of Pakistan. An instrument landing system which enables aircraft to land in bad weather was also installed at Karachi Airport in 1958, and at Dacca in 1962 bringing these airports upto the standard of modern airports in the West Pakistan.

Long range communication channels were also provided at Lahore and Dacca to enable these stations to contact aircraft flying within these regions and provide them with flight and meteorological information etc.

Prior to 1958 radio telegraphy was employed as a means of communication between different aeronautical stations in Pakistan

as also with other aeronautical stations of the world. To carry out international commitments and also to provide for quick transmission of messages so vital for the safety and regularity of flights, eight radio teletype and seven radio telegraphy circuits at Lahore and one radio teletype and five radio telegraphy circuits at Dacca have been put into operation. With this radio communication net-work Pakistan had direct communication with other aeronautical stations *viz.* London, Cairo, Damascus, Beirut, Tehran, Bahrein, Kandahar, Kabul, Bombay, Colombo, Delhi, Calcutta, Rangoon, Kunming, Akyab and Moscow. To cut down delays on the transit time of messages between the receiving stations and the delivery station a torn-type radio teletype relay centre has been established at Karachi Airport. This system has greatly reduced the delay in handling messages passing through the Karachi communication centre.

The Inter-Tower Communication (voice communication) net-work has also been provided at all aerodromes in East Pakistan whereby the aerodromes can speak directly to each other. Such a system has also been provided for aerodromes in West Pakistan.

COMMUNICATIONS

Postal services and telecommunications are a central subject. That is, the responsibility for the maintenance and development of these lies with the central government. This responsibility is carried out by the central Ministry of Communications through its attached departments: the Post Office Department, and the Telephone and Telegraph Directorate, each headed by a Director-General. Two of the country's largest employers, these Departments have 40,000 men working round the clock, and another 16,000 working part time in such capacities as village postmasters and delivery agents.

POST OFFICE

Apart from the normal postal services, the post office performs various other functions, especially as an agency of other Ministries or of the Provincial Governments. It offers banking facilities, runs life insurance business, collects excise revenue through the sale of excise stamps, and even sells anti-malaria drugs. Radio licences are issued by the post office, and defence personnel can draw their pensions at its counters.

Organisation

For administrative purposes the country is divided into four postal circles, two in each province. In East Pakistan are the Eastern and Western Circles, with headquarters respectively at Dacca and Khulna. West Pakistan has the Northern and Southern Circles with head offices at Lahore and Karachi respectively. These four circles are again divided into postal divisions, each headed by a superintendent. Inside the divisions are the head post offices and sub-post offices, which are the basic administrative units. The Post Office Department also has a separate life insurance organisation headed by a Director who has his deputies in each wing, an organisation for stamps, headed by a Controller of Stamps, and a Director of Postal Training and Research, with

seven Regional Training Centres at various places in the country namely, Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi in West Pakistan, and Dacca, Rajshahi, Khulna and Chittagong in East Pakistan.

Postal Service

The earliest records of postal service in the sub-continent go back several centuries. The Mughal court maintained a well-developed courier service. As a regular and organised public facility, the postal service dates from the third quarter of the 18th century, about the time when the introduction of a coach service was revolutionising the system in Great Britain. The postage stamp was introduced in 1854. On recommendation from an official commission, the postal system received its first reorganization in 1890. The next development was the carriage of mail by air when Imperial Airways extended their services to India, in 1929, followed in the next few years by KLM and Air France. A state air mail service was first started between Delhi and Karachi, and was gradually extended. The air mail postcard dates from 1931. The main routes of the country were operated by the 'Imperial Post' and the minor ones by 'District Post'.

At independence the postal telecommunication service in Pakistan formed two disjointed segments of the communication system of the sub-continent. Major adjustment in the collection and distribution of traffic, rapid organisation of new facilities throughout the country, and maintenance of a link between two wide apart wings of the country were difficult tasks. However, the postal service, with three quarters of a century's experience behind it, quickly rallied, and then settled down to some very rapid development.

Development

The development falls into three categories: firstly the expansion in service, secondly improvements in efficiency of service, thirdly expansion in kinds of services rendered. In the past 19 years development has occurred in all these categories. Thepace has been especially rapid recently, during the Second and now the Third Plan periods, when social welfare and rising economic activity has demanded, and received, expanding communication facilities.

Number of Post Offices

Beginning with 6,474 post offices in 1947, there are well over double that number at present. The rate of increase now is more than one new post office a day. The main concern is to reach areas which are less accessible. Accordingly the emphasis is on opening offices in the villages. Where possible only agencies rather than full-fledged post offices with their complement of staff, are opened at first; and where possible more than one village shares in a common facility. This helps in keeping the costs low and the coverage proportionately wide. At this rate, shortly every population unit of 1,500 will heva been provided with a post office of its own throughout the country.

The Third Plan target is to set up an average of 500 new post offices yearly, of which 400 will be in rural areas. The target for the

first year, 1965-66, was achieved and upto 78 per cent, of the second is underway.

Mail traffic

The volume of mail traffic of all categories has been increasing rapidly. It has risen by over 125 per cent since 1948-49. Over two million registered and unregistered articles are handled every day. Remittances through post offices, used chiefly by middle and low class breadwinners, have increased at an even higher rate over this period: by 133 per cent in number, and 208 per cent in value. Now over 31,000 money orders, of the value of Rs 2 million, are daily handled.

Speed and Efficiency

Almost all mail internal or outward bound, is now airlifted. This has been possible because of the rapid progress of the national airlines (PIA). There is now a daily link with almost all countries of the world. Over 6¼ thousand pounds of mail is airlifted to inland destinations, and one thousand pounds to overseas.

With heavy demands being made on postal services, which are increasing everyday, utmost efficiency has to be ensured operationally as well as administratively. This object is being achieved through gradual mechanisation—gradual so as not to disturb the employment pattern.

A beginning was made some 15 years ago with automatic stamp-vending and electrically operated stamp-cancelling machines in some of the major post offices. Franking machines were also installed at important counters. Since then the process has been speeded. In 1964 two electro-mechanical letter sorting machines were installed at Dacca and Karachi and a third one was installed in May 1966 at Lahore. These machines sort letters at the rate of 100 per minute, against 10 per minute by hand. This has reduced the peak hour rush at these centres, and has helped synchronize disposal with air time schedules. More post offices are to be equipped with the machine in the next years. Slower modes of conveyance in rural areas are being replaced by motorised transport. In the riverine part of East Pakistan also, motor launch services are being introduced. The Third Five-Year Plan has allotted a sum of Rs 5 million for installation of machines to relieve pressure.

Facilities

The Post Office has introduced several measures to increase the availability of its services. In important towns of industrial and commercial activity the facility of night service was introduced. Beginning in 1951, there are now nearly a hundred such night post offices. Secondly, sale of stamps and booking of registered mails are done at important centres on Sundays and other postal holidays.

A scheme for mobile post offices has been started, especially to serve rural areas.

Finances

With the expansion in the use of postal services, the post office

budget has had a marked growth since independence, as shown in Table 36.

TABLE 36

THE BUDGETS FOR 1948-49, 1965-66 AND 1966-67

Million rupees

	1948-49	1965-66 (Revised Estimates)	1966-67 (Budget Estimates)
Revenue	22.7	90.8	104.5
Expenditure	27.0	87.2	91.7
Net Revenue (+ or —)	—4.3	+3.6	+12.8

Source: *Ministry of Finance*

Life Insurance

Postal Life Insurance is the single biggest life insurance organisation in the country. It was started about 80 years ago, originally for the benefit of postal employees only, on a no-profit, no-loss basis. Later it was extended to other government and semi-government employees; and now it is open to all members of the public. Its chief objective is to attract the low-income group people who are more exposed to economic risks. Accordingly, it has lately been concentrating more on smaller towns and rural areas where private insurance concerns do not reach.

Postal insurance is administered entirely for the benefit of the policy-holders. The cost of management is kept at the minimum; the policies are guaranteed by the government; all the profits are paid to the policy-holders in the shape of bonus, which is declared every five years. Its rate for 1957-62 was Rs 18 per thousand per annum for civil policies and Rs 15 per thousand per annum for the defence forces policies. This was the highest bonus declared so far. PLI policies cover all risks; and the rates of premium are low. Loans are sanctioned to the extent of the surrender value of the policies, and the period a policy has to remain in force to acquire that value has been reduced from three to two years.

Several schemes are under consideration to provide further facilities. One is group insurance at minimal cost. Accounting and posting of insurance ledger cards are being mechanized in city post offices.

Among the steps being adopted to help spread the benefits of postal life insurance, government is setting up advisory bureaux all over the country. The first one, inaugurated in July 1966, is at Rawalpindi. Others at Dacca, Chittagong, Khulna, Rajshahi, Lahore, Lyallpur, Multan and Karachi are to follow shortly. The bureaux will provide specialist assistance and advice to present and prospective policy-holders.

The total number of policies in force at the end of October 1966 was 141,834 and the total sum assured was nearly Rs 435 million. The new policies during the fiscal year 1965-66 were 27,202, for a sum of over Rs 85½ million. The average since then remains at about 2,000 new policies every month, of a value of Rs 7.00 million.

Savings Bank

The Post Office's banking facility at the counter is also aimed primarily at the low income group, and at the suburban and rural population where private commercial banks have not spread. Rates of interest are high: namely, 4 per cent per annum, calculated monthly, on ordinary deposits, 4, 5, and 5½ per cent on fixed deposits for 1, 2 and 3 years respectively. Recently, many improvements have been made in the system of deposit and withdrawal and their maximum limits.

Postal savings certificates are also popular as government security. The Post Office also sells and cashes prize bonds and makes payment of prizes.

The amounts handled by the Post Office in postal savings ranges between Rs 75 to Rs 100 million every month. The figure during September 1966 was over Rs 78 million. The balance at credit of Post Office Saving Bank and Saving Certificates on 30th September 1966 stood at Rs 1,424.7 million. The new investments made by the Post Office during the period July to September 1966 amounted to Rs 16.9 million.

Philately

Pakistan prints some of the world's finest postage stamps. It won first place in the philatelic exhibitions at Belgrade in 1964, and has been participating in other world exhibitions. A number of Far East and Middle East countries have shown interest in getting their stamps printed in this country and more than half a dozen of these are already having their postal stamps printed in Pakistan.

TELECOMMUNICATION

The country's telecommunication is administered by a Telegraph and Telephone Directorate at Karachi with its zonal offices in Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.

At independence there was hardly any telecommunication network in existence. The underwater cable link between Karachi and the Persian Gulf had also been cut off during the World War, and was not restored till two months after independence. An area more than 2½ times that of the British Isles, and the fact that two parts of this area were separated by a thousand miles of foreign territory combined to make both the need and the challenge of developing quick means of communications very great. New telegraph and telephones channels has had to be added with speed. The progress has been especially rapid since 1959, so that now, in contrast to the position in 1947, Pakistan is connected with many major cities of the world on telegraph and telephone lines, and by teleprinter systems. Internally, manually operated telephone exchanges long ago started yielding place to automatic exchanges, and now long distance calls between bigger cities are done by direct dialling instead of through the exchanges. There is a telephone factory at Haripur which is meeting the country's expanding needs.

Now at a higher level of development, the telecommunication expansion is at present concentrating more on—

- linking up the rural and other comparatively remote areas, and
- establishing the closest possible link between the two, thousand-mile apart, wings of the country.

Telegraph Service

There were no separate telegraph offices in 1947. Now there are nearly 1,350 of them handling over 15,000 messages every day. The number is being continually increased, with the emphasis on connecting rural areas, and the coastal regions of East Pakistan. Telegraph channels have been increasing at the rate of 4,700 miles per year recently, and the rate will rise even further.

To improve and automatise the service, installation of automatic telegraph exchanges at Dacca, Kushtia, Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Sukkur is in hand.

To achieve better communication between the two wings of the country measures under-examination include a microwave communication system via Nepal, and satellite communication between Karachi and Chittagong in the near future. Microwave radio relay network between some bigger cities in each province is also in hand during the current Plan period. New microwave links are being provided between Karachi—Rawalpindi, Dacca—Chittagong, Dacca—Khulna, and, Dacca—Kushtia.

The international telegraph service terminal at Karachi was taken over from Cable and Wireless Limited in 1957.

International radio telegraph circuits now link Karachi with several foreign cities, including Teheran, Peking, Moscow, Paris, London, New York, Osaka, Amsterdam, Hamburg and Jeddah. Dacca is linked with London and Manila.

Telex

The teleprinter exchange service is a great advance in modern communication. Telex Exchanges have been installed at Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Chittagong, Rawalpindi and Khulna. Leased teleprinter circuits have been provided to government departments, news agencies, airlines and private users within Pakistan, and over the international link between Karachi and Amsterdam. Via Amsterdam the service is available for the USA and the European countries. Efforts are being made to popularise the leased teleprinter circuits service in the country and overseas. Improved circuits have been provided between Quetta and Qandahar. Circuits between Peshawar, Kabul, and between Chittagong and Rangoon are also being improved.

Telephones

Beginning with little more than 15,000, the number of telephones now is over 150,000—a tenfold increase. Further expansion provided for under the current plan is for another 150,000 telephones. Attention again is being paid to connecting the more distant regions: the scheme of linking up each *thana* headquarter in East Pakistan is, for instance, nearing completion. Among developments in

respect of telephones are converting manual exchanges into automatic ones and enlarging the capacity of auto-exchanges.

Trunk Service

Trunk service exists between all the cities and towns of the country and, externally, with several major countries East and West. Internally, the manual exchange is gradually being dispensed with, and direct dialling now exists between Dacca—Chittagong—Khulna, Karachi—Rawalpindi—Multan—Karachi, and between Lyallpur—Sargodha—Multan—Karachi. The channels between Karachi and Hyderabad have been increased from 24 to 44, and those between Rawalpindi—Lahore—Karachi are being expanded. Further improvement and expansion in direct long distance dialling is proposed in the current Plan.

Trunk traffic has been increasing very sharply. The present rate is over 30,000 effective calls per day. On installation of direct dialling the rate has been seen immediately to double itself, and thereafter to rise rapidly. By 1970 the effective calls per day are anticipated to approach the 100,000 mark. To cope with this situation, several schemes have been under way. Among them:

- Expansion of existing Karachi—Rawalpindi co-axial system in addition to its full capacity of 960 channels.
- Installation of a similar four tube co-axial systems on Dacca—Chittagong—Rawalpindi—Peshawar, and Lahore—Sahiwal—Multan routes.
- Installation of microwave radio relaying link between Lahore—Rawalpindi, Dacca—Chittagong, Dacca—Khulna, etc.

These improvements will also benefit all the adjoining towns, and in addition to telecommunication facilities will provide channels for relaying television programmes.

Trunk exchanges have been expanded during the Second Plan period, and now under the Third, 52 new exchanges with 66 trunk boards are being opened, and the existing 50 exchanges are being further expanded by nearly a 100 additional trunk boards.

In rural areas, where private telephone connections are usually non-existent, long distance public call offices are set up to bring them in touch with towns and cities. So far over 500 such places have been so connected, and a further 525 are to be connected by 1970.

Radio Telephone

Interwing communication is provided by high frequency radio telephone circuits. At present Karachi and Rawalpindi are so connected with Dacca. Radio telephone link also exists with a number of countries. The latest cities to be added to the list are Nairobi, Rangoon, Bandung, Kuala Lumpur and Peking.

A microwave radio relay system from Karachi to Ankara via Tehran was commissioned in June 1965. This was the first line of sight radio relay system which linked Pakistan with its neighbouring countries on high quality telephone channels. On this link a direct telephone channel to London, using the European network, has also

been provided. This has facilitated extension of trunk calls from Pakistan to European countries on high quality speech circuits instead of the existing high frequency radio telephone circuits.

As high frequency radio system is subject to atmospheric disturbance, a scheme for installation of a 'tropospheric scatter radio link' *via* Nepal is in hand.

Training

There is one telecommunication staff college at Haripur and three regional telecommunication training schools at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca. All outside recruits for engineering and technical services have to undergo training courses for periods varying from one to two years in telecommunication subjects. Various categories of staff also undergo refresher course on maintenance of telecommunication equipment. Sometimes special training is imparted for highly technical equipments, such as carrier-on-coaxial cable or microwave systems. Approximately one thousand trainees are trained every year in the schools and the staff college. A microwave training wing has been added to the Karachi school for training of technicians in microwave communications.

During the Third Five-Year Plan period the assets of the department will almost be doubled. Consequently adequate trained personnel will be required for execution of the schemes as well as maintenance of the additional equipment. To meet this requirement in all branches schemes have been prepared for expansion and extension of training facilities during the Third Five-Year Plan.

They include—

- Establishment of three training centres at Rohri, Peshawar and Khulna.
- Expansion of the regional training schools at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore.
- Expansion of the telecommunication Staff College, Haripur.
- Establishment of a regional school at Chittagong.
- Establishment of Divisional Training Centres at Hyderabad, Multan, Quetta, Lyallpur, Rawalpindi, Comilla and Rajshahi.

TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE MANUFACTURE

There is one telegraph workshop at Dacca and another at Kotri. All the components of poles, viz., tubes, sockets, arms, clamps ties, struts are manufactured in those shops. At the Kotri workshop, telegraph instruments are also manufactured. The value of annual output now approaches Rs 10 million.

The Haripur telephone factory manufactures all types of exchange equipment, telephone instruments, and trunk boards, to meet full requirements. The annual output for 1965-66 was as follows:

Telephone instruments	22,500
Exchange lines	
Automatic } Mannual }	26,400
Turnover Value	Rs 230,000

The factory has also undertaken manufacture and assembly of voice frequency telegraph systems, auto-telex exchanges, and gentex exchanges. The Telephone Industry of Pakistan (TIP) has concluded an agreement with a foreign firm for the manufacture of an improved and modern type of telephone equipment in Haripur.

Assembly of teleprinter had also started at this factory.

The setting up of a telephone factory at Dacca, a cable factory at Khulna and a telephone carrier factory in Islamabad is provided under the current Plan.

A telephone factory is being established at Dacca to manufacture certain heavy and bulky items of telephone equipment. It is expected to reach manufacturing capability by 1970.

To meet the increased demand for telephones the Haripur factory is being further expanded.

A project for establishment of a cable factory in East Pakistan is also under consideration. This factory is to go into production by the end of 1967.

TABLE 37

TRANSPORT AND COMMUNICATIONS: TARGETS AND ACHIEVEMENTS 1960-65

Sub-Sector/Item	Unit	1959-60 (base year) Production achievements	Plan Target 1960-65	Percentage implementations
1	2	3	4	5
PAKISTAN WESTERN RAILWAY				
Locomotives	Number	878	155	100
Wagons	-do-	29,854	8,642	96
Coaches and others	-do-	2,986	529	77
Rail Renewals	Track miles	—	1,054	87
Sleeper Renewals	-do-	—	1,779	81
PAKISTAN EASTERN RAILWAY				
Locomotives	Number	472	62	82
Wagons	-do-	19,640	5,837	96
Coaches and others	-do-	1,621	486	60
Rail Renewals	Track miles	—	207	118
Sleeper Renewals	-do-	—	771	88
HIGH TYPE ROADS				
East Pakistan	Miles	708	870	111
West Pakistan	Miles	8,800	2,275	72
ROAD TRANSPORT VEHICLES				
East Pakistan Road Transport Corporation	Numbers	—	200	117
West Pakistan Road Transport Corporation	-do-	1,433	1,248	89
Karachi Road Transport Corporation	-do-	284	700	Transferred to Private Sector
TRAFFIC HANDLED AT PORTS				
Karachi Port	Thousand tons	4,503	—	73*
Chittagong Port	-do-	2,644	—	24**
Chalna Port	-do-	886	—	13**
COMMUNICATIONS				
New Post Offices	Number	4,112	1,300	119
New Telephones	-do-	10,800	45,700	117

Source: *Planning Commission.*

*Level of Traffic by the end of 1964-65.

**Percentage increase over the base year 1959-60.

13. FINANCE

PUBLIC FINANCE. Introductory.

Budget-Making. Procedure; Structure; Authorized Expenditure; System of Control and Scrutiny; Parliamentary Control; Budgetary Reforms.

Sources of Revenue. For the Centre, the Provinces and the Local Bodies; Income and Corporation Tax; Indirect Taxes (Customs Duty, Excise, Sales Tax).

Heads of Expenditure.
Budgets of 1965-66 and 1966-67. Budgetary Position; Revenue Receipts; Non-Development Expenditure.

Inter-Government Fiscal Relations. Pre-independence Pattern; After Independence Reforms: *The Raisman Award, First Finance Commission, Second Finance Commission.*

BANKING AND PRIVATE FINANCE. Introductory.
The State Bank. Origin and Functions.

Commercial Banks. General; the National Bank of Pakistan.

Cooperatives.

Insurance. Administration; Legislation; Insurance Companies; Insurance Corporation; Insurance Business; Investments.

Other Financial Institutions. Agricultural Development Corporation; Industrial Development Bank; Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation; House Building Finance Corporation; National Investment Trust; Investment Corporation; Stock Exchange.

Monetary Management.

PUBLIC FINANCE

The role of public finance has increased enormously during the past decades. The chief function of the State, especially in a developing country, is no longer simply to ensure proper defence of the country and maintain internal law and order: it now includes direct responsibility for social and economic development. Long-term planning for development has now become a rule rather than an exception, and finding and sharing up the very scarce resources for this development is one of the primary and most taxing functions of the State.

The magnitude of increase in government spending in Pakistan

over the past twenty years of its existence is an indication of the change that has come about. In 1948-49 the combined expenditure of the central and provincial governments was under Rs 1,500 million; in 1957-58 it rose to Rs 3,938 million; and in 1966-67 it is as high as Rs 11,714 million. The development expenditure alone for 1966-67 stands at Rs 9,140 million. The very notable increase in the second half of the post-independence period is largely due to the impetus given to economic development by the present leadership. Throughout the sixties there has been evidence of a most systematic and effective management of public finance, both in developmental and non-developmental spheres.

BUDGET-MAKING

The fiscal year in Pakistan extends from 1st July to 30th June. The actual preparation of the budget starts several months in advance. Budget estimates for the ensuing year and revised estimates for the current year are prepared by each department of each ministry in respect of receipts and expenditure that it controls. These are checked by the Ministry concerned and then passed on to the Ministry of Finance which subjects all estimates received to a further scrutiny in perspective, and then proceeds to shape the overall budget statement. The statement on completion is first submitted to the Cabinet for approval and then placed before the National Assembly. The same procedure is followed in the provinces.

Structure

The budgetary and accounting structure of the central and provincial governments are in general identical.

The Annual Budget Statement, and the Demands for Grants and Appropriations, make up the documents of the budget.

The Annual Budget Statement shows in broad detail, and by major heads of account, the estimated revenue receipts and expenditure, capital receipts and disbursement, and the transactions expected to take place under debt and deposit heads. The receipts and expenditure relating to the Central Consolidated Fund are shown separately from other transactions.

The budget is divided into three main sections: revenue or current account, capital account and ways and means account.

Revenue or Current Account

The *revenue or current* account comprises the current or day to day expenditure on defence, administration, social and other activities. It is financed by revenues raised currently through taxes and duties, from government estates and undertakings, and from other miscellaneous receipts. The difference between revenue receipts and revenue expenses represents the revenue surplus or deficit for that year.

Capital Account

The *capital account* is generally designed for the purpose of creating material assets required to add to the economic potential of the country; it must involve either construction or acquisition of a

work or other permanent asset of a material character in connection with a project of lasting public utility, like an irrigation or industrial project. This expenditure is generally met from specific or general-purpose borrowings, from surplus, if any, on the revenue account, from miscellaneous capital receipts, and from accumulated balances, if any.

Ways and Means Estimates

Ways and means estimates show receipts and disbursement relating to:

(*a*) debt and deposits in respect of which government acts as a banker and becomes liable to repay the money received or has a claim to recover amounts paid; and

(*b*) the remittance and suspense heads of receipts and expenditure which are merely adjusting heads intended to accommodate various transactions temporarily until these are adjusted under the final heads of account.

Receipts

The receipts of the central government are divided into two parts: the Central Consolidated Fund, and 'other moneys'. The first comprises all revenues received and all loans raised by the central government, and the 'other moneys' are all other funds received by or on behalf of the Central Government. A division is shown between estimated receipts derived from (a) existing taxation, (b) new or increased taxation, (c) borrowings and (d) other sources.

Taxation Proposals

Proposals for taxation are presented through Finance or other Money Bills. Proposals for changes in the taxes and duties governed by the existing Acts, are incorporated in the Finance Bill, while the proposals for new taxes which are not covered by any existing Acts are included in new Money Bills.

Expenditure

Estimates of expenditure on revenue and capital accounts, proposed to be met from or charged upon the Central Consolidated Fund, are presented in the form of Demands for Grants and Appropriations. The Demands include the expenditure which is not charged upon the Consolidated Fund, and each demand distinguishes the recurring expenditure from the non-recurring expenditure and classifies separately all 'new expenditure' which, unlike other expenditure previously authorized by the National Assembly, requires fresh votes. The Appropriations show the sums required by Government to meet contractual or other obligatory expenditure charged upon the Central Consolidated Fund not requiring the vote of the Assembly. The Demands for Grants and Appropriations are also accompanied by a schedule in respect of projects for which provision in the budget is made for the first time and which extend over several years, as well as estimates of expenditure on those projects in subsequent years so as to enable the National Assembly to authorize the entire expenditure on each project at the very outset. Besides brief notes on the revenue

receipts, estimates regarding the proceeds of central taxation to be shared with the provincial governments, the estimates of revenue and capital expenditure as presented in the Demands for Grants and Appropriations, together with descriptive notes on the purposes, activities and projects on which expenditure is proposed to be incurred in the new financial year, are also included.

Authorized Expenditure

Following consideration by the National Assembly of the Annual Budget Statement and the Demands for Grants and Appropriations a schedule of expenditure is prepared, specifying,

(*a*) the sums required to meet the expenditure charged upon the Central Consolidated Fund; and

(*b*) the sums granted by the Assembly to meet other expenditure (both new and other than new) authenticated by the President.

This authenticated schedule is known as the Schedule of Authorized Expenditure and constitutes the legal authority for withdrawal of moneys from the Central Consolidated Fund to meet the expenditure provided for in the Demands for Grants and Appropriations and included in the Budget Statement. The Ministry of Finance thereafter notifies the administrative ministries/divisions that the budgetary allocations as included in the Grants/Appropriations controlled by them are available for utilisation in accordance with the rules regulating the expenditure of public moneys.

System of Control and Scrutiny

Apart from the usual care taken in preparing budgets and controlling expenditure, several rules and modes of procedure have been devised to avoid wastage. The secretary in-charge of a ministry or division is the Principal Accounting Officer for all offices under that ministry. A financial adviser, who is under the exclusive administrative control of the Ministry of Finance, is also attached to each ministry or division to give advice on all financial and accounting ministry or division on matters which fall within the purview of the powers already delegated to the ministries and divisions.

Except under extraordinary circumstances, no lump-sum provision is made in the budget: all provision is against specific items.

Barring certain exceptions, demands for supplementary grants are not allowed.

In respect of development projects, procedures have been laid down ensuring close liaison and co-ordination between the Ministry of Finance and the National Planning Commission.

The Constitution provides for a comptroller and auditor-general, who is appointed by the president, and under terms and conditions which are such as to ensure his utmost independence. As comptroller, the appointee controls receipts and issues of public money to and

from the revenue account; and as auditor-general he audits departmental funds. His function is to ensure that all expenditure is properly incurred, that no payment go beyond any statutory authority, that needed sanctions have been obtained. He also examines departmental expenditure with a view to drawing attention to any cases of waste or extravagance.

The Auditor-General submits his reports to the legislature, where it is first examined by the Public Accounts Committee.

Parliamentary Control

The Constitution requires that central and provincial budget statements of each financial year be laid before the National and Provincial Assemblies respectively before the beginning of that year for debate and approval.

In respect of all new expenditure the Assembly has the power either to decline assent or to reduce the demand and new taxes can be levied except with the approval of the Assembly. The Public Accounts Committee of the Assembly ensures that Government is answerable for all expenditure after it is incurred.

The budget, apart from being a balancing of receipts and expenditures, is implicitly a statement of the basic policies of the Government concerning issues of social and economic importance. Its presentation in the legislature therefore becomes the occasion for a comprehensive review of the state of the nation.

The financial provisions in Pakistan's Constitution have certain distinguishing features which have proved their worth.

Items which are charges on the Consolidated Fund may be discussed in, but cannot be submitted to the vote of the Assembly. Such items include salaries and allowances payable to the President, the Speaker and Deputy Speakers, Ministers, Judges of the Supreme Court, Members of the Public Service Commission, the Chief Election Commissioner, state debts, etc. The principle is that these payments should be assured.

Projects of long duration, spreading over more than one year, are submitted to the vote of the Assembly only at the beginning, when estimates are also given of expenditures in the subsequent years. Having once voted these expenditures, the Assembly can debate them in subsequent years, but cannot again vote on them. This arrangement ensures adequate supply of funds for the whole project, and it also restrains executing departments from changing their estimates subsequently, except on very convincing ground. The system of committing the resources of the country in advance thus places a heavy responsibility on the planning, executing and approving authorities who become bound to ensure that the project formulation and cost estimation fully take into account all the technical, administrative, and financial factors involved before the estimates of the project and its proposed phasing are finalized.

Budgetary Reforms

Recently a Budget Reforms Committee made several recommendations for further improving the existing budgetary system. It asked for—

(*a*) adoption of the system of programme budgeting and performance evaluation for all departments;

(*b*) presentation of economic analysis of all budgets;

(*c*) rationalisation of the distinction between revenue and capital heads so that budgetary surplus/deficit could serve as better tool of economic policy formulation; and

(*d*) an all round streamlining of procedures for the preparation, review and execution of budget estimates to facilitate proper financial management and avoidance of delays in clearance of accounts.

The recommendations are in course of adoption.

SOURCES OF REVENUE

Tax receipts provide the largest single source of revenue for financing government expenditure. The Constitution confers distinct and exclusive tax jurisdictions on the central and provincial governments. It has also laid down that no tax shall be levied for the purpose of the central or provincial government except by or under the authority of an Act of the central or provincial legislature as the case may be.

Revenue receipts of the central government were less than Rs 200 million in 1947-48 (a period of 7½ months), and Rs 700 million approximately in the following full year. In 1966-67, however, the figure is Rs 5,635.6 million.

Still the ratio of total tax revenues to national income 8.3 per cent is very low in Pakistan when compared with advanced countries where it is generally over 25 per cent. In some of the other developing countries the figure is also more satisfactory than in Pakistan.

The Centre

Duties and taxes with respect to which the central legislature has exclusive power to make laws include customs and excise duties, income and corporation taxes, estate and succession taxes, sales and purchase taxes, and some others.

The highest taxation authority in the central government is the Central Board of Revenue. The sales tax and income tax are administered by Commissioners of Income Tax. Collection of customs and excise duties are administered by the Collectors of Customs and Central Excise. Separate administrative organizations exist for land customs and sea customs.

The Provinces

The provincial legislatures have powers to make laws for the provinces with respect to any matter other than the above, including taxes on agricultural income, on land and buildings, excise duty on items excluded from central excise, stamp duties, taxes on vehicles etc., and tolls on the movements of goods and passengers.

Apart from sources of revenue assigned exclusively to the

provinces, the central government shares with them the proceeds of certain taxes. (The details of this arrangement are described below against Inter-Government Fiscal Relations.) In addition to shared taxes, the provincial governments also get every year substantial amounts of grants-in-aid and development loans from the central government for meeting expenditure.

Local Bodies

The local bodies in the country, namely municipalities and district and union councils can levy taxes permissible to provincial governments as allowed under the Constitution subject to the previous approval of the provincial government concerned. The list of taxes, rates, tolls and fees leviable by the local bodies are contained in the Basic Democracies Ordinance and the Municipal Administration Ordinance which govern the operations of local bodies in the country. The main source of funds for local bodies are loans and grants from the provincial government, a cess on land revenue collected by the provincial government and assigned to the local bodies, taxes on property, on the value of land and animals, tolls, octroi duties and tax on professions and trades.

Direct Taxes, Income Tax and Corporation Tax

Among the direct taxes, the income and corporate taxes are the most important. Their contribution to the total has increased from 10.4 per cent in 1948-49 to about 16 per cent in 1966-67. This increase is the outcome of the growth in commercial and industrial activity during this period.

For the purposes of income tax administration, the country had been divided into three areas: East Pakistan and the North and South Zones of West Pakistan, each under a Commissioner of Income Tax. With effect from 1st December, 1965 three new territorial Commissioners have been appointed.

No tax is levied where the annual income does not exceed Rs 6,000. After deduction of the allowances indicated below, all individuals, unregistered firms and association of persons are liable to tax on their *taxable income* at given rates.

From the total income of a taxpayer, the following deductions are made to arrive at his taxable income:

(1) *Personal allowance* of Rs 2,000.

(2) *Earned income allowance* is admissible in respect of income from business, profession or vocation or other sources if such income is derived through personal exertion.

The allowance permitted is:

a) in the case of income from salary, at 25 per cent of such income upto Rs 20,000 plus 20 per cent of the balance, subject to a maximum of Rs 6,000;

b) in the case of income other than salary, at 20 per cent of such income, subject to a maximum of Rs 4,000.

(3) *Investment allowance* is given on investments made in the following:—

a) Government Provident Fund.

b) Insurance Premium (if not paid out of G.P. Fund)

c) Other investments viz. new or fresh share issues of Companies approved under section 15/C, NIT (Unit) Certificates, Saving Certificates, or Government Securities etc.

d) Amount spent on the purchase of books of a professional or technical nature or of general utility.

Investment Allowance is restricted to 20 per cent of total income (or 30 per cent, if insurance included) subject to a maximum of Rs 12,000 (or Rs 15,000 provided Rs 3,000 are invested in NIT (Unit) Certificates). Relief in tax on this account should not, however, exceed 50 per cent of the amount of investment admissible for deduction according to the aforesaid limits.

(4) *Children's education allowance* is given at the rate of Rs 300 for each child subject to a maximum of Rs 900. The maximum of Rs 900 can also be claimed in respect of one or two children provided the actual expenditure incurred is not less than Rs 900. The child should be between 5 and 21 years of age and wholly dependent on the tax payer. This allowance is not available to assessees whose total income exceeds Rs 25,000.

The law of income tax makes no discrimination between one tax-payer and another on the basis of his nationality or domicile. Thus, a citizen of Pakistan can be assessed as a 'non-resident' and a foreigner as a 'resident' depending upon the period of his stay in the country.

There are certain classes of income that are not liable to tax and are not included in the income of the tax-payer, such as that from property held under trust or the income of a religious or charitable institution, salaries of certain diplomatic personnel, earnings from creative writing, and so on.

A company is liable to income tax at the rate of 30 per cent and super-tax at the rate of 30 per cent. Certain rebates on super-tax are, however, allowed.

All companies incorporated in Pakistan are assessed for taxation at company rates. Foreign corporations or associations of persons do not *ipso facto* qualify for assessment as 'companies' and have to apply to the Central Board of Revenue for permission, which is readily granted in all appropriate cases.

The rate of tax on inter-corporate profits (i.e. dividend income received by one company from another company) is fairly low. In the case of dividends received by a public company, tax is payable at the rate of 15 per cent; in other cases, it is 20 per cent. Foreign companies get the benefit of the reduction in the rate of inter-corporate tax on industrial profits if the country where such companies are incorporated has an agreement with Pakistan for relief from double taxation.

In the case of individuals, dividend income, including distributions made by the National Investment (Unit) Trust, up to Rs 3,000 is exempt. The balance, if any, is added to their other income, which is brought to tax in the normal way.

Tax at the rate of 12.5 per cent is levied on bonus shares and is payable by the company. The shareholders are not taxed again in respect of the value of their shares.

Registered firms (partnerships) are liable to pay tax at specified rates. The share of income of each partner of a registered firm is added to his other income, if any, and tax is levied on the aggregate. The share of each partner is determined according to the terms of the partnership deed, after deducting the tax paid by the registered firm from his taxable income.

To speed up industrialisation, new undertakings established between 1st April, 1959 and 30th June, 1970 have been granted a 'tax holiday'. For industrial undertakings established between Ist July, 1965 and 30th June, 1970, such tax holiday is available for six, four and two years, depending on the areas in which they are located. On expiry of this period they are also entitled to depreciation allowance on the new written down value of the capital assets, i.e. the original cost minus the normal depreciation allowance.

Pakistan has concluded bilateral agreements with various countries for relief from double taxation.

Indirect Taxes

Customs Duties

Customs duties are a major source of Government revenues. The revenue accrues from the levy of both import duties and export duties.

Import duties are imposed at various rates on goods imported into Pakistan. These rates are either ad-valorem or specific and are indicated in the Pakistan Customs Tariff. The underlying principle determining the rate of duty is that luxury or non-essential items of import should be subjected to higher duty while those of developmental character to lower duty. By keeping duty on raw material and on industrial requirements lower than that chargeable on manufactured articles—a system almost the reverse of that followed before independence—the import rate-structure of the customs tariff has been given a distinct bias favourable to industry.

Apart from being the means of producing sizeable revenues for the Exchequer, import duties are sometimes used as an instrument for discouraging speculative or unnecessary imports. This device is also frequently used for affording protection to local manufacturing industries in the earlier years of their production.

Export duties leviable on goods exported from Pakistan are few in number. They are at present confined to raw cotton, raw jute and fresh fish. Over a period of time these duties have been progressively scaled down. In determining their extent, it is always ensured that the marketability of the exportable surplus is not adversely affected.

Central Excise

Central excise duties can be imposed by the Central Legislature on any commodity produced in the country (except narcotics and alcoholic liquors which have been assigned under the

Constitution to the provinces), are an important source of central revenues. Unlike sales tax, central excise duties are imposed on individual commodities on a selective basis, taking into account circumstances of each industry with regard to its potentialities in the matter of production and consumption.

So far, central excise duties have been imposed on 41 commodities. Wherever possible, excise duties are imposed on specific items but an ad-valorem basis is adopted in respect of products which have too wide a variety and price range for specific rates. Goods for general consumption generally carry a low incidence of duty.

As a matter of general principle, special exemption from central excise duties is granted in respect of goods produced by petty manufacturers such as handloom products and cold-process laundry soap. The basis of such special exemption depends on the individual circumstances in the petty sectors of each industry.

Excisable goods which are exported enjoy relief from payment of excise duty and rebates are specially sanctioned in respect of excisable items used in the manufacture of export goods. In order to exploit fully the industrial potentialities, Government have created an incentive by applying excise duties on the production capacity of units, instead of on actual production, in the case of selected industries.

Sales Tax

Sales tax was introduced in Pakistan as a central levy for the first time in 1948. It was a 'turn-over tax' and every dealer making an annual turn-over of Rs 5,000 or more was assessable. The tax was payable on every transaction and as such was a 'multiple point tax'.

In July 1951 the present Sales Tax Act, 1951 came into being which replaced the 'multiple point tax' by a 'single point tax'. The Act provides for machinery for tax free purchases at the intermediary stages.

The standard rate of tax is 15 per cent of the value of goods. Luxury goods are taxed at the enhanced rate of 20 per cent, while a few items, e.g. coarse cotton fabrics, are taxed at rates lower than the standard rate.

In the case of goods which are manufactured in Pakistan, the value is the 'sale price' of the goods and the tax is payable when the goods are delivered to the purchaser. In the case of goods which are liable to excise duty, the sales tax is collected along with the excise duty when the goods are cleared by the excise authorities.

In the case of goods imported into Pakistan, the value for determination of sales tax is 'duty paid value', i.e., the value of goods after taking into consideration the customs duty leviable on it. The tax is collected at the time of importation along with the customs duty.

For goods sold by licensed whole-salers, the value is taken, for imported goods, as their duty-paid value, and for locally manufactured goods, the price for which the goods were purchased by the licensed whole-salers.

In respect of the goods exported from Pakistan, tax is levied on the 'duty paid value' and is payable before the shipping bill is passed

by the Customs Collector.

A large number of items have been exempted from the levy of sales tax. There are two lists of exemptions: one comprising goods which are exempt, whether made locally or imported, and the other of goods which are exempt only if they are manufactured locally.

All goods manufactured in Pakistan are exempt from sales tax when exported. The products of small manufactures employing a capital upto Rs 10,000 and satisfying certain other prescribed conditions are exempt from sales tax.

TABLE 38
RECEIPTS FROM MAIN CENTRAL TAXES

Million rupees

Year	Customs	Central Excise Duties	Income and Corporation Tax	Sales Tax
1955-56	616.0	167.7	257.2	231.3
1956-57	514.7	182.7	253.9	258.4
1957-58	463.8	253.5	285.2	268.5
1958-59 (15 months) ..	545.3	318.4	479.7	333.9
1959-60	609.2	332.3	372.4	315.2
1960-61	620.5	401.1	383.1	467.1
1961-62	736.5	409.3	449.4	480.0
1962-63	762.4	506.7	507.8	523.2
1963-64	766.7	716.4	580.2	675.5
1964-65	1,078.3	816.1	652.1	705.9
1965-66 (Revised) ..	1,117.5	937.2	730.0	780.0
1966-67 (Badget) ..	1,455.0	1,444.6	815.7	1,016.3

During the period covered in the above table, collections from Customs have increased by 236 per cent, from Central Excise Duties by 861 per cent, from Income Tax and Corporation Tax by 317 per cent and from Sales Tax by 439 per cent.

The receipts from Principal Heads of Revenue in the year 1966-67 bear the following proportion to the total Revenue Receipts of the Central Government.

	Percentage of the total revenue
Customs	24.40
Central Excise Duties	24.23
Income Tax and Corporation Tax ..	13.68
Sales Tax	17.04

HEADS OF EXPENDITURE

Side by side with the growth of revenue receipts, the expenditure on revenue account has also increased. The main factors contributing to this increase have been cost of national defence, debt servicing liabilities and the need for stıengthening the administration for successful implementation of Development Plans.

Table 40 indicates the growth of revenue expenditure under major categories, viz., defence, civil administration, interest liabilities and miscellaneous expenditure.

TABLE 39
CAPITAL RECEIPTS OF CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

Million rupees

	Source	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 Revised	1966-67 Budget
I.	Internal Resources	541.3	754.1	1,647.8	2,322.7
	Revenue Surplus/Deficit	2.4	319.0	—535.6	989.2
	Permanent Debt (net)	155.3	174.7	405.5	250.0
	Floating Debt (net)	—175.4	96.4	1,058.1	—2.8
	Unfunded Debt (net)	80.3	80.4	63.1	196.0
	Accretions to reserve funds	129.7	201.1	558.8	372.1
	Other Capital receipts	329.2	52.3	110.0	127.0
	Recoveries of loans and advances	72.9	7.0	146.6	180.3
	Deposits and remittances heads	—53.1	176.8	—158.7	210.9
II.	External resources	22.9	1,000.2	1,768.8	2,507.1
	Loans raised abroad (including local currency loans)	14.5	431.1	1,638.8	2,539.4
	Foreign Grants (including local currency grants)	8.4	569.1	130.0	99.7
	Less: likely shortfall	—	—	—	132.0
III.	Cash Balance utilization	142.4	74.4	28.4	10.9
	Total:	706.6	1,828.7	3,388.2	4,818.9

TABLE 40
REVENUE EXPENDITURE OF CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

Million rupees

Year	Defence	Civil administration.	Debt Services	Other Expenditure	Total
1955-56 ..	917.7	264.1	93.7	157.9	1,433.4
1960-61 ..	1,005.3	343.5	182.8	244.1	1,775.7
1965-66 (Revised) ..	2,710.0	449.9	464.8	509.2	4,133.9
1966-67 (Budget) ..	2,250.0	457.8	521.5	491.7	3,721.0

The budgetary position of the Central Government on revenue account for the years 1965-66 and 1966-67 is briefly as under:

TABLE 41
BUDGETS FOR 1965-66 AND 1966-67

Million rupees

	1965-66 (Budget)	1965-66 (Revised)	1966-67 (Budget)
Revenue Receipts.	5,003.8	4,697.3	5,962.1
Provincial share of taxes.	1,234.8	1,099.0	1,251.9
Revenue expenditure.	2,983.5	4,133.9	3,721.0
Non-Development.	2,796.0	4,000.0	3,514.7
Development.	187.5	133.9	206.3
Surplus (+) Deficit (—)	+785.5	—535.6	+989.2

TABLE 42
CAPITAL EXPENDITURE OF CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

Million rupees

Object	1955-56	1960-61	1965-66 Revised	1966-67 Budget
I. Development expenditure	791.3	1,661.3	2,522.5	4,375.9
Direct Capital investments	379.3	612.1	943.6	1,234.2
Loans to Provinces	334.9	716.2	1,399.3	2,690.8
Grants to Provinces	42.4	276.2	170.0	183.0
Loans to semi-independent bodies, Local bodies, etc.	34.9	56.8	9.6	53.0
Add. Reserve for additional loans.	—	—	—	214.9
II. Non-development expenditure.	84.7	167.4	765.7	293.1
Repayment of foreign loans	11.5	41.1	114.5	119.9
Defence Services	103.4	38.9	—	—
State Trading	—	52.1	—	—
Miscellaneous investments	—	—	1.1	0.2
Currency, Commuted value of pensions and other works	3.5	15.8	187.2	26.3
Direct expenditure from reserve funds	—	2.8	302.5	127.7
Loans and advances.	3.7	16.7	160.4	18.9
III. Contigency items	—	—	100.0	150.0
Total:	706.6	1,828.7	3,388.2	4,818.9

In the original budget estimates for 1965-66 a revenue surplus of Rs 785.5 million was anticipated. However, due to the increased defence expenditure necessitated by war with India in September 1965, there has been a worsening of Rs 1,321.1 million in the revenue budget with the result that there is likely to be a deficit of Rs 535.6 million. This deficit is reduced to Rs —401.7 million, if we exclude the development expenditure of Rs 133.9 million charged to the revenue account.

A surplus of Rs 989.2 million is anticipated for the year 1966-67. If development expenditure of Rs 206.3 million met from the revenue account is excluded the surplus is Rs 1,195.5 million.

Revenue Receipts

Broad details of the revenue receipts for the years 1965-66 and 1966-67 are given in Table 43.

The Revenue Receipts included in the Revised Estimates for 1965-66 show a decrease of Rs 306.5 million over the original budget accounted for by the variations against various receipt heads. The reduction in receipts would have been much larger had it not been for the levy of defence surcharge during the course of the year which has yielded Rs 241.0 million in revenues.

The shortfall under Customs has been mainly the result of the adverse effect of the war emergency on the import and export traed

TABLE 43
RECEIPTS OF CENTRAL GOVERNMENT FOR 1965-66 AND 1966-67

Million rupees

	1965-66 (Budget)	1965-66 (Revised)	1966-67 (Budget)
A.—Proceeds of Taxation:			
Customs	1,229.0	1,117.5	1,455.0
Central Excise	962.5	937.2	1,444.6
Taxes on Income and Corporation Tax	808.5	730.0	815.7
Sales Tax	806.5	780.0	1,016.3
Other Heads	199.5	185.1	158.4
Total proceeds of taxation:	4,006.0	3,749.8	4,890.0
B.—Other Revenue Receipts:			
Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone Departments (net)	66.8	65.6	93.0
Interest	594.2	592.7	647.1
Civil Administration	45.2	42.2	50.5
Currency & Mint	59.6	59.9	67.0
Civil Works	7.6	8.2	10.5
Defence	115.5	89.4	110.0
Miscellaneous	72.9	83.4	80.2
Other Heads	36.0	6.1	13.8
Total Other Receipts:	997.8	947.5	1,072.1
Total Revenue Receipts:	5,003.8	4,697.3	5,962.1

and also because of reduction in the rate of import duty on vehicles and deferment of duty on machinery. Reductions under other heads are also the result of the conditions caused by the emergency.

Expenditure

The broad details of the expenditure in the revenue accounts which is conventionally described as non-development expenditure are given in Table 44.

The classification of these expenditures as non-developmental is done in order to distinguish these from the developmental expenditures included in the Five-Year Development Plan.

The major item of expenditure in the revenue budget relates to defence services. Next in importance in so far as their quantum is concerned are expenditures on civil administration and debt services. The head civil administration includes, besides administrative expenditure necessary for the running of the government,

TABLE 44
NON-DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE FOR 1965-66 AND 1966-67

Million rupees

	1965-66 (Budget)	1965-66 (Revised)	1966-67 (Budget)
Revenue Collecting Departments	56.5	46.8	54.5
Debt Services	473.8	464.8	521.5
Civil Administration	747.1	449.9	457.8
Currency & Mint	11.0	10.3	11.4
Civil Works and Central Road Fund	26.3	35.2	17.8
Defence Services	1,360.9	2,710.0	2,250.0
Grants-in-Aid to Provincial Governments	40.8	42.7	40.0
Other Heads	352.6	240.3	161.7
Total Non-Development Expenditure	2,796.0	4,000.0	3,514.7

expenditures on beneficient and social services such as education, health, agriculture, industries, etc.

If we exclude the provision made for defence expenditure the remaining non-development expenditure of the Government shows a reduction in the 1966-67 budget of over Rs 170 million when compared with the original budget estimates for 1965-66 and a reduction of over Rs 25 million when compared with the revised estimates. This is in consonance with the Government policy to achieve maximum economy in the expenditure on administrative departments in order to mobilise more resources for economic development.

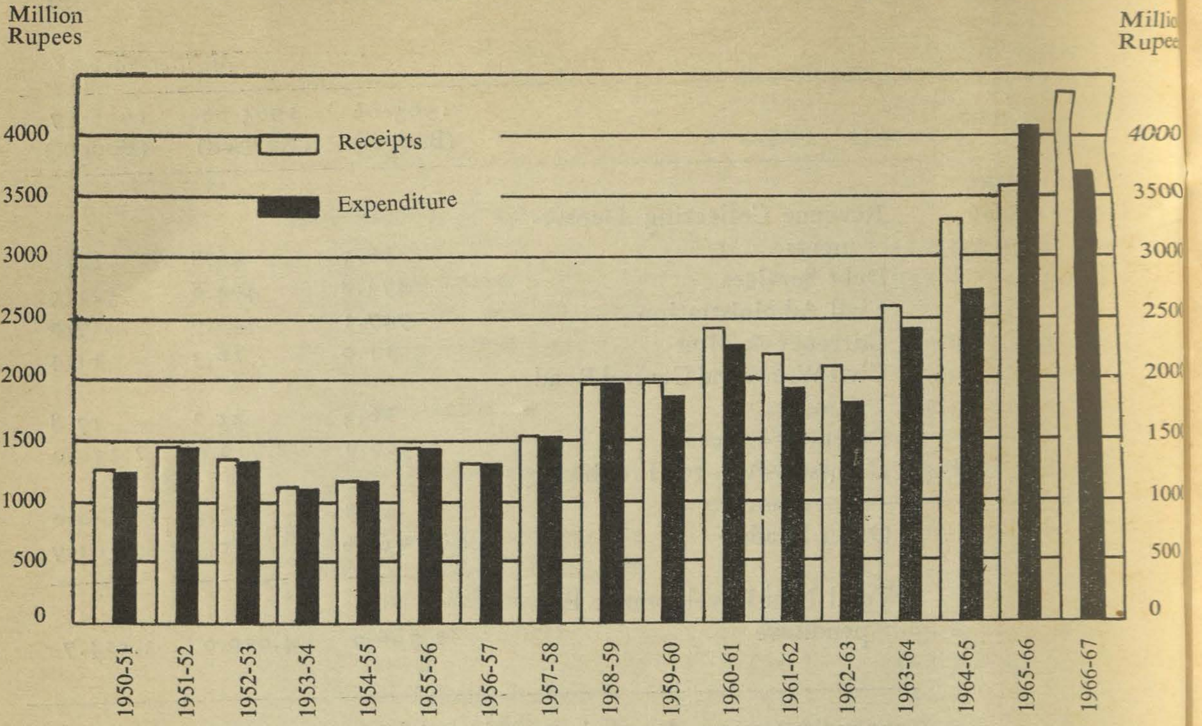
INTER-GOVT. FISCAL RELATIONS

Pre-Independence Pattern

The pattern of federal finance in the period immediately preceding Independence was based on the Government of India Act, 1935, which divided the constitutional responsibilities of the federal centre and the constituent units called provinces, and earmarked the distribution of revenues between the various component units. The centre was made exclusively responsible for the conduct of foreign affairs, defence, communications and currency control, but had concurrent responsibility for the maintenance of law and order, agriculture, industry and public welfare services, including education and health. In accordance with this division of responsibilities the revenue resources were categorised under four heads as follows:

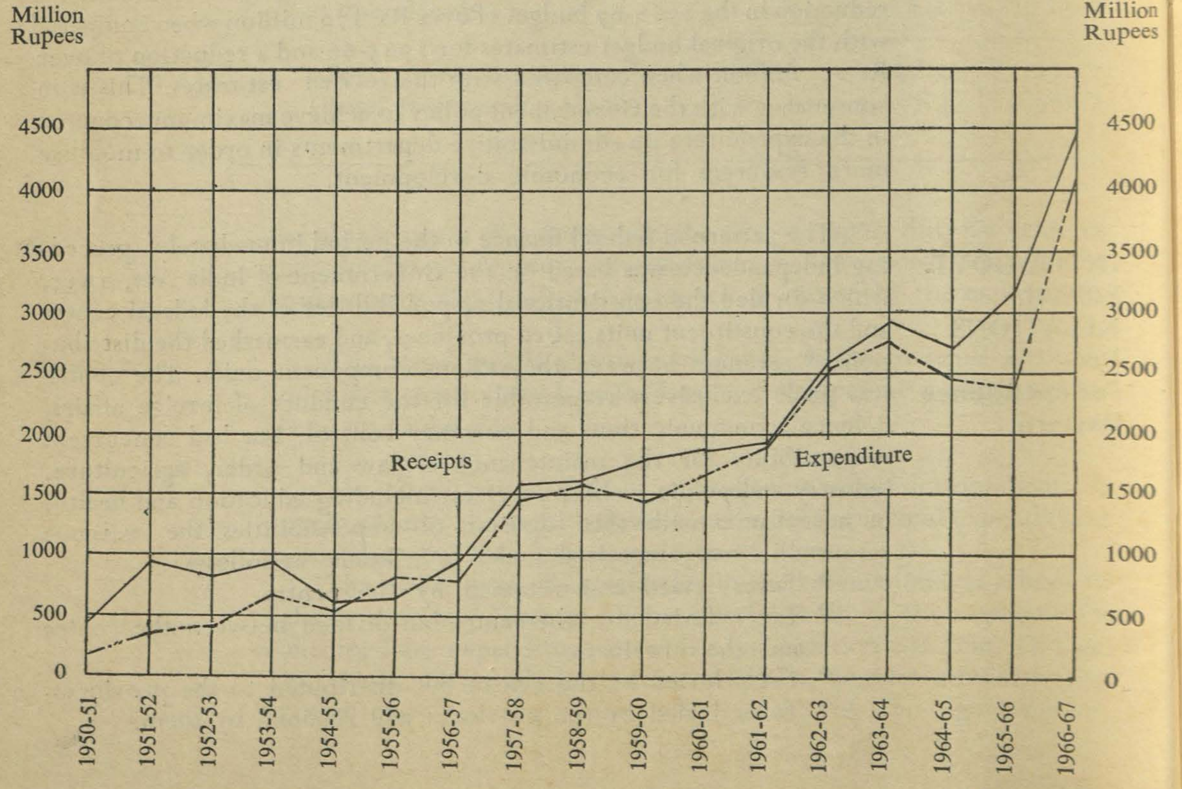
- Taxes levied and retained by the centre.
- Taxes levied by the centre but divided between the centre and the provinces.
- Taxes levied by the centre but distributed to the provinces.
- Taxes levied by the provinces and retained by them.

REVENUE RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT



SOURCE: *Ministry of Financ*

CAPITAL RECEIPTS AND DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT



SOURCE: *Ministry of Fina*

Taxes levied and retained by the centre included import duties, income and corporation taxes, and receipts from public undertakings administered by the centre, such as railways, posts and telegraphs. Taxes levied by the centre but divided between the centre and the provinces, included export duties, excise duties (with some exceptions), and taxes on incomes other than agricultural incomes. Taxes levied by the centre and distributed to the provinces were mainly composed of stamp duties in respect of various instruments of credit, terminal taxes on movements of goods and passengers by rail or air, and succession duties, except those on agricultural property. The major provincial taxes levied and retained by the provinces were land revenue, irrigation charges, and sales tax. They also included succession duty on agricultural property, taxes on agricultural incomes, duties on goods and passengers carried by inland waterways, tolls, excise duties on items exempted from central excise and taxes on employment and professions, mineral rights and entertainment, etc.

The terms of the Act relating to income taxes and jute export duty were elaborated by the Niemeyer Award of 1937, which also incorporated provisions for additional assistance to certain provinces. The provincial share of the divisible pool of income tax collections was prescribed and the jute growing provinces were allotted a share in the export duty on jute at 62.5 per cent of collections from the basic duty. In view of their meagre revenue resources, the North West Frontier Province and Sind were given central subventions of Rs 10 million and Rs 15 million respectively, together with certain re-adjustments in public debt and debt owing to the centre. The subvention to Sind was discontinued during the war years when prosperity came to the province.

After Independence

After independence, the abnormal conditions of influx of refugees and additional defence requirements indicated a review of the pre-independence fiscal arrangements. The following adjustments were carried out in the budgets of the Central Government for 1948-49 and 1949-50:

- The railway finances were included in the general budget. (However, the railways were allowed to continue to accumulate depreciation funds at normal rates and to operate as much as possible on commercial lines).
- The sharing of income tax with the provinces was temporarily suspended in 1948-49.
- The sales tax, which was a provincial source of revenue was temporarily handed over to the centre (subject to the allocation of 50 per cent of its proceeds to the provinces).

It was also decided that the raising of money through public loans would be the sole concern of the centre which would in turn provide loans to the provinces according to their needs.

Revision in 1950: Raisman Award

The improvement of central finances in 1950 called for a re-allocation of revenues between the centre and the provinces in order to

pass on a greater share of central taxes to the provinces. Accordingly the position was re-examined in 1951 with the help of Sir Jeremy Raisman and on the basis of his recommendations the following financial arrangements were given effect to from Ist April, 1952:

1) 50 per cent of the net proceeds of income (other than corporation tax and those pertaining to the Federal Capital and taxes payable in respect of Federal emoluments) were distributed amongst the provinces and to the federated states as follows:

East Pakistan	..	..	..	45 per cent
Punjab	..	..	..	27 ,, ,,
Sind	..	..	..	12 ,, ,,
N.W.F.P.	..	..	..	8 ,, ,,
Bahawalpur	..	..	..	4 ,, ,,
	Total:	..	..	96 ,, ,,

The remaining 4 per cent was meant for Baluchistan and other States which might accede, in respect of income tax, and in the meantime this was allocated to the then existing units in the same proportion, as the shares aggregating 96 per cent.

2) Sales tax was to continue to be administered by the central governmert, but the provinces were allowed to receive half of the net collections in their areas. Half of the collections in Karachi were also allowed to be distributed amongst the various units in West Pakistan.
3) The net proceeds of the excise duties on tobacco, betelnuts and tea were to be divided among the various units in accordance with the percentages recommended for the division of provincial share of income tax receipts.
4) East Pakistan was to be allocated 62½ per cent of the basic jute duty and 10 per cent of any additional duty.
5) The subvention for N.W.F.P. was raised from Rs 10 million to Rs 12.5 million.

Finance Commission's Recommendations

This arrangement was continued (with some changes necessitated by the integration of various units in West Pakistan in 1955) until June, 1962.

In view of the significant changes that had taken place in the economy and the revenue structure of Government since the Raisman Award, and the growing responsibility entrusted to the provinces for executing the development programme, it became necessary to review the position again and accordingly a Finance Comission was set up in December, 1961 to look into the problem. On the recommendations of this Commission a Presidential Order, called 'the Distribution of Revenues and Consolidation and Repayment of Loans Order 1962', was issued on the 5th June, 1962. Under this Order, the following

assignments were allowed to the provinces from the proceeds of central taxes, with effect from July 1, 1962:

a) Taxes on income (including corporation tax). 50%
b) Sales tax. 60%
c) Federal excise duties on betelnuts, tobacco and tea. 60%
d) Export duties on jute and cotton. 100%
e) Estate and succession duties in respect of agricultural land. 100%
f) Taxes on the capital value of immovable property. 100%

The sum to be assigned to the Provinces were to be apportioned between the two provinces in the following terms:

i) *Sales Tax*

a) of the 30 per cent of the sum assigned, each province to receive an amount bearing to the said 30 per cent the same proportion as the collection in that province in that year bears to the total collections, and

b) of the balance of 70 per cent of the sum so assigned in each year, East Pakistan shall receive 54 per cent, and West Pakistan 46 per cent.

ii) *Estate and Succession duties in respect of agricultural land and the taxes on capital value of immovable property*

Of the sums so assigned in each financial year, each Province to receive an amount equal to the collection in that Province in that year.

iii) *Other taxes and duties*

Of the sum so assigned in each year, East Pakistan to receive 54 per cent and West Pakistan 46 per cent.

In addition to these increased revenue assignments the provinces were given further relief in loan repayment. All loans made by the central government to the provinces after August 14, 1947 (other than foreign loans and pre-independence loans) and outstanding on June 30, 1961, were written down by fifty per cent and converted into one loan in each case which were to bear interest at the rate of 3½ per cent and were repayable by the province concerned to the central government in 25 annual instalments commencing on the first day of July, 1961.

TABLE 45

ASSIGNMENT TO PROVINCES 1962 TO 1965

Million rupees

Year	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Total
1962-63	361.5	361.2	722.7
1963-64	439.9	446.5	886.4
1964-65	453.8	460.5	914.3
1965-66 (Revised) ..	556.0	543.0	1,099.0
1966-67 (Budget)	645.0	632.8	1,277.8

The amounts which the Provinces would have received if the Raisman Award had been continued during the period 1962-63 to 1964-65 would have been as follows:

Million rupees

Year			East Pakistan	West Pakistan
1962-63	..	..	231.1	352.3
1963-64	..	..	281.9	433.7
1964-65	..	..	281.4	475.7

Second Commission

A Finance Commission was again set up under Article 144 of the Constitution in March, 1964, to make recommendations about allocations of revenues between the central and provincial Governments and other ancillary matters. The Commission assessed the fiscal position of the centre and the provinces in the light of the financial targets laid down for them to be realised in the Third Plan and the financial resources that could be mobilised by them on the basis of present rates of taxation, and the existing arrangements for their sharing between the centre and the two provinces. Recognizing the need for providing larger resources to the provinces for financing economic development, it made recommendations which were accepted.

Out of the net proceeds of the following taxes and duties, 65 per cent were assigned to the provinces and 35 per cent retained by the centre.

- Taxes on income
- Sales Tax
- Excise duties on tea, tobacco and betelnuts
- Export duties on jute and cotton.

For calculating the Provincial share, the basis to be followed was that in the case of taxes on income, excise duties and export duties, East Pakistan would receive 54 per cent and West Pakistan 46 per cent, while in the case of sales tax, 30 per cent would be distributed on the basis of collections in each province and the balance in the same ratio as other taxes, *viz* 54 per cent for East Pakistan and 46 per cent for West Pakistan.

BANKING AND PRIVATE FINANCE

Pakistan inherited a banking and credit structure consisting mainly of foreign banks geared to financing the external trade of the country. There was at the start only one Pakistani owned bank with its head office in the territories now forming the country. The communal disturbances and mass migration of population between India and Pakistan that accompanied independence led to a virtual breakdown of the banking system such as it was. There was much shifting of head offices from Pakistan to India, so that within four months 418

out of 631 bank offices had closed down, and in another six months the remaining number had declined to 195.

For nearly a year, there was no separate banking authority in Pakistan. Under the partition arrangement the Reserve Bank of India was to perform the central banking functions for both the countries upto the end of September 1948, but because of the unsatisfactory working of this arrangement Pakistan felt compelled to seek its premature termination. Thus, the State Bank of Pakistan was established in July, 1948.

Another important step was the setting up of a commercial bank, with 25 per cent Government participation in its share capital. This was the National Bank of Pakistan, established in 1949, which played a vital role in meeting the crisis created shortly afterwards by a trade deadlock with India.

Since those days, banking has not only recovered from its early setbacks, but has also attained a high level of functional efficiency and soundness. The number of bank offices and the amount of deposits have both increased enormously.

Besides progress in commercial banking, there has been other expansion to meet medium and long-term credit requirements of agriculture, industry and housing through the setting up of several specialised Finance Corporations.

The State Bank of Pakistan

Originally, the State Bank was charged with 'regulating the issue of bank notes and keeping reserves with a view to securing monetary stability in Pakistan and generally to operate the currency and credit system of the country to its advantage'. The State Bank of Pakistan Act 1956 required it, in addition, 'to foster the growth of the monetary and credit system in the best national interest and help in the fuller utilisation of the country's productive resources'. This recognition of the developmental functions expressed the new earnestness in the national economic policy.

The Government holds 51 per cent of the State Bank share capital of Rs 30 million. The participation of private share holders is designed to secure the benefit of experience and knowledge available outside the Government sector. The general superintendence and direction of the affairs of the bank are vested in the central board of directors, of whom six are nominated by the government and three elected by share-holders, one from each of the three regional groups. Of the six directors nominated by government only one is a government official. An executive committee is also constituted to deal with matters while the central board is not in session. There are three regional boards, with headquarters at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca which advise the central board. The governor is appointed by government for a period of five years and is eligible for reappointment. Also appointed by government are two deputy governors, one of them stationed at Dacca to carry out day-to-day administration.

There are, first, the traditional functions of the State Bank. It is the sole authority for the issue of notes: in fact its very first task on formation was to arrange for the issue of Pakistani notes and withdrawal of Indian notes. The amount representing the notes issued has to be backed by an equivalent amount of assets, of which a portion, specified by the central government in consultation with the State Bank is to be maintained in the form of gold coin, gold bullion, silver bullion and approved foreign exchange. The remaining assets are held in the form of rupee-coin, rupee-securities, and such bills of exchange and promissory notes as are eligible for purchase by the Bank.

Next, the Bank acts as a banker to the central and provincial governments. These governments are also required to entrust the Bank with management of public debt and the issue of new loans and treasury bills.

As the banker's bank, the State Bank maintains close relationship with commercial banks. Every schedule bank is required to maintain minimum reserves with the State Bank, the present requirement being 5 per cent of demand and time liabilities. These banks are entitled to loan and rediscount facilities from the State Bank.

The State Bank has extensive powers for regulating credit to meet the exigencies of changing situations. In addition to the traditional instrument, namely, bank rate changes and open market operation, the Act of 1956 provides for varying minimum reserve requirement of schedule bank when necessary, and it has entrusted the Bank with comprehensive powers of selective and direct credit regulations.

The Bank also plays a major supervisory role, the purpose being to ensure that sound banking practices are followed and depositors' interests are protected for which purpose it has wide regulative powers.

Special responsibility has been given to the Bank in the field of agricultural credit. Its other principal function is to maintain the external value of the rupee, so that it administers foreign exchange regulations. In its advisory role, the State Bank gives counsel to central and provincial governments on financial and economic matters, especially on all loan operations, on matters such as agricultural credit, industrial finance, exchange control, legislation affecting banking and credit, financial aspect of planning and development, and the promotion of small savings.

During 1965-66, the Bank's income was nearly Rs 160 million, and the expenditure was Rs 55 million. Thus the net available balance with State Bank of Pakistan amounted to Rs 105 million.

Commercial Banks

Commercial banks constitute the most important source of institutional credit in the economy. There are two categories of commercial banks; scheduled and non-scheduled. The first consist of banks having a prescribed minimum of paid-up capital and reserve and fulfilling certain other requirements; those not fulfilling these requirements (a small number) remain non-scheduled. The former constitute the principal commercial banks.

Out of the 36 commercial banks at the end of 1965, 16 were Pakistani and 20 foreign. However, the Pakistani banks had deposits of Rs 6,500 million, being nearly 84 per cent of the total. The same ratio applied to the loan figures also.

In earlier years, the trade efforts of the commercial banks were directed to financing foreign trade only. Later, with changes in the economy, a similar change in the pattern of bank advances has occurred. The advances to the manufacturing sector have risen steadily; next came advances to sectors like services such as transport, storage, communication; mining and quarrying then facilities for agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing. The expansion of facilities in the agricultural sectors has, however, been undertaken mainly through the medium of co-operatives and through specialised agricultural finance institutions.

In keeping with needs and opportunities, the banks have shown readiness to assume greater risk to help the development efforts. The major portion of bank credit is extended in the form of cash credit and over-drafts. The rate of interest charged on loans and advances varies with the type of loan, and sometimes also according to the type of borrower.

One problem of bank credit has been its tendency to concentrate in a few hands. The Credit Enquiry Commission first drew attention to it in 1959. The State Bank of Pakistan has since made special efforts to bring about wider dispersal of bank credit through simplifying accessability and availability and through credit control policies. Accordingly there has been a great increase in the percentage of smaller borrower.

Formerly banking business was regulated by scattered pieces of legislation. The Banking Companies Ordinance of 1962 filled the need for a single comprehensive frame-work. Apart from incorporation of previous provisions it also included several new ones with a view to establishing in the national interest closer supervision over the affairs of banking companies.

Steps have been taken to prevent the tendency to open a large number of bank offices in the main urban centres to the neglect of up-country areas. This has helped in the spread of banking facilities in even the remotest parts of the country.

The Banking Ordinance has also made provision to ensure that resources raised by the banks in Pakistan are largely employed within the country itself.

The National Bank of Pakistan

The National Bank of Pakistan is the largest among the Pakistani commercial banks. It was set up in November, 1949 in the train of a series of events that threatened to create a financial and trade crisis in Pakistan. First the foreign and Hindu-owned offices, as noted, began closing down. The exchange banks that were entirely concerned with the export of raw material ceased taking interest in business here. The Imperial Bank of India, the largest commercial bank and the agent to the Reserve Bank of India, also began to close down its branches,

and its half-hearted handling of Treasury business meanwhile led the Government into difficulties. Then, in September, 1949, came the devaluation of the sterling, followed by similar devaluation of its currency by India, in violation of a specific earlier agreement with Pakistan not to do so without mutual consultation. Then came India's withdrawal of support from Pakistan's jute trade, the primary foreign exchange earner of this country and for which, in Pakistan, there were no warehouses, no mills, no banks to carry on the jute business.

In the face of this, the Government decided to set up a commercial bank and a Jute Board. The first branch of the National Bank was therefore opened in Dacca, followed within a fortnight by five more branches, all in East Pakistan. The Bank was set up with an authorised capital of Rs 30 million. The Central Government subscribed Rs 7.5 million and public subscription amounted to Rs 22.5 million. That is, 25 per cent was payable by central government and the rest was collected through the public.

The expansion of the Bank and its activities was very rapid. The total loans advanced by the National Bank began with Rs 3.6 million in 1949 and rose to nearly Rs 21,290 million by the end of 1965. Deposits in its 555 branches up to June stood at Rs 2,313 million. It has made a profit of well over Rs 30 million during 1965, which amounts to 37 per cent of the total profits earned by all the Pakistani commercial banks. The reserve fund now stands at Rs 42.5 million.

Recently the Bank has undertaken special financing operations connected with official price support schemes and has also financed food procurement and stock-piling programmes.

Co-operatives

A pressing need has been to increase agricultural production, which has raised the question of rural credit. With almost no banking facilities in the rural areas, the traditional source of rural credit was the indigenous money-lender who supplied money at exorbitant rates of interest. The other source was in the forms of loans given by government direct to the agriculturist in times of distress, called the *taccavi* loans.

The co-operative movement in Pakistan started as early as 1904. It was organised as a three-tier system except Sind and N.W.F.P. where there were two tiers. The three tiers consisted of the primary societies at the base, central banks and central unions in the middle and provincial banks at the top. At the time of independence there were only three such provincial banks in West Pakistan and none in East.

The lending activities of these banks have grown rapidly since then. The State Bank of Pakistan has been making loans to cooperative banks since 1951, but until 1958 these were almost entirely against government securities and were given without any stipulation as to the purposes for which they would be utilized. It was in 1958 that effective lending for agricultural purposes was started.

The total loans sanctioned by the Bank to these institutions stood at Rs 194.3 million during 1965-66. The State Bank provides loans to Co-operative Banks at concessional rates. It also provides remittance facilities to them on favourable terms.

INSURANCE

Insurance in Pakistan began in conditions very similar to banking. In 1946, out of 251 indigenous companies, only 21, and out of 101 foreign companies, only two, had their head offices located in Pakistan areas. That made up one-fifteenth of the total as against the population proportion in these areas of one-fifth. After independence the head offices in Pakistan kept decreasing and reached the figure of six in October 1948. After that, however, the insurance industry in Pakistan began to make steady progress.

Administration

During the transition period after independence, which lasted until March 1948, the Superintendent of Insurance, Government of India, administered law in both countries, but a separate Department of Insurance was set up at Karachi in April 1948. The Department is managed by the Controller of Insurance, appointed by the central government.

Legislation

Insurance business in Pakistan is regulated by the Insurance Act, 1938, as amended from time to time and, the Rules of 1939. All amendments have been directed towards promoting insurance business, regulating their operations, imparting stability to them, and ensuring the interests of policy holders. The Insurance Act was amended in 1948, reducing by 50 per cent deposits the foreign insurance companies were required to keep in Pakistan. In 1960, an ordinance was promulgated which laid down that insurance companies transacting general insurance business should hold investments in Pakistan at a level exceeding their liabilities by Rs 500,000 or 10 per cent of the net premium income, whichever is higher. This measure was designed to impart strength and stability to local companies. Through another amendment, introduced by this ordinance, powers were assumed by the central government to appoint administrators to manage the affairs of unsatisfactorily administered insurance companies until such time as they were restored to a sound position. Further legislation of 1961 aims at preventing the growth of mushroom insurance companies by prescribing a minimum paid-up capital (of one million rupees) which a company should have before being registered to do insurance business. The minimum limit on the working capital of a mutual insurance company or a cooperative was also raised from Rs 15,000 to Rs 50,000. Another amendment was introduced to enable life insurance companies to invest upto 60 per cent of their life fund in approved investments. The previous limit was 40 per cent. Insurance companies have also been allowed to invest in the share capital of joint stock companies registered in Pakistan with predominantly foreign participation.

On the recommendation of the Committee of Officials on Insurance, a bill to amend the Insurance Act was introduced in the National Assembly on March 7, 1966.

The bill aims, among other things, at ensuring the following:

(*a*) that all regulations are observed by insurance companies;
(*b*) that the insurance funds are invested in the best interest of policy-holders and do not promote concentration of wealth;
(*c*) that an increasing part of savings effected are available for investment in the public sector;
(*d*) that the premium rates are lowest possible;
(*e*) that life insurance benefit is extended to the rural areas;
(*f*) that the outflow of foreign exchange through reinsurance by companies is reduced as much as possible;
(*g*) that there is the facility of appeal by insurers against any orders of the Controller of Insurance.

It has been enjoined upon every insurer to allocate a minimum of 90 per cent of the profits arising out of life business for distribution among policy holders.

Moreover most funds invested in life insurance are exempt from income tax.

Insurance companies are an effective instrument for mobilising savings within the country to be used for development purposes and it has been proposed that insurance companies should aim at securing business of a total assured sum of Rs 10,000 million by 1970 and the additional accretion to the life fund should be Rs 2,500 million during 1965-70.

War Risk Insurance

In order to provide relief to the people whose property might be destroyed by enemy action, the War Risk Insurance Ordinance, 1965 was promulgated on the 9th of September, 1965, shortly after the Indian aggression began. Five different schemes of insurance for different categories of property were also introduced with effect from that date. Under these arrangements, Government became the insurer and insurance companies acted as agents for the purpose of issuing policies and collecting premium. The Pakistan Insurance Corporation was entrusted with the overall management of the Scheme.

Under these schemes, properties whose value exceeded certain specified amounts were compulsorily insurable. By a subsequent amendment of the Ordinance, it was made optional for owners of properties whose value was less than these specified values to take out policies under these schemes. The premium rates were modified from time to time.

These schemes were rescinded with effect from 1st March, 1966.

Insurance Companies

The total number of insurers registered in Pakistan in 1966, was 81. Of these, 40 are constituted or incorporated in Pakistan and the rest in various countries abroad. Ten of the indigenous companies are registered in East Pakistan and 30 in West Pakistan. Of the foreign

companies, 21 originate in the U.K., eight in India*, five in the USA, three in New Zealand and one each in Australia, Canada, France, and Hong Kong.

Ten of the 40 Pakistani companies are exclusively engaged in life insurance business, 21 in life and other business, and nine in other business only. Foreign companies concentrate more on non-life insurance. Only two of them exclusively do life insurance, one does life as well as general insurance, and 38 are in insurance business other than life.

Pakistan Insurance Corporation

Pakistan Insurance Corporation was established in 1953 with a paid-up capital of Rs two million which has since been increased to Rs 5 million. 51 per cent of the share capital is held by the central government and 49 per cent by the insurance companies and the general public. The Corporation has been entrusted with the following functions—

- to provide reinsurance facilities in the country;
- to assist in the promotion of new insurance companies and give technical advice; and
- to administer the National Co-insurance Scheme and Export Credit Guarantee Scheme.

The National Co-Insurance Scheme underwrites insurance business emanating from Government and semi-Government Institutions. All the national companies, which are members of the Insurance Association of Pakistan, are members of the Scheme and the business received by the Scheme is distributed among these companies. The premium income of the Scheme increased from Rs 15.875 million in 1964 to Rs 22.04 million in 1965.

Export Credit Guarantee Scheme was established by the Central Government in 1962 to support the export drive of the country. It was originally introduced for a period of three years on a trial basis. It has since been extended for a further period of 5 years by the Central Government. The Scheme issues insurance cover for the total exports of an exporter over a period of one year. It covers both the commercial risks arising out of the insolvency or failure of the buyer to pay to the exporter within six months after due date of payment, and political risks which include transfer risk caused by the operation of any law preventing or restricting the transfer of payment, import control restrictions, war and civil commotion risks, diversion risk and risks occasioned by any other cause not being within the control of the exporter or buyer. The Scheme pays 75 per cent of the losses on account of commercial risks and 85 per cent of the losses on account of the political risks.

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*Consequent upon the promulgation of the Defence of Pakistan Rules, 1965, the registration of all Indian Insurance companies operating in Pakistan which became enemy firms was not renewed. The management of the business of these Indian insurance companies, and the business in Pakistan of the Life Insurance Corporation of India were taken over by the Pakistan Insurance Corporation.

In specially deserving cases, the Scheme has been authorised to issue selected market policies as an alternative to whole turn over policies. In exceptional cases, it may also issue cover to exports in the national interest under the direction of the Central Government which then underwrite the whole risks. The Scheme may also issue export finance policies to indemnify banks and financial institutions against losses in respect of loans made by them to exporters.

Insurance Business

The following summary shows the net amount of new life business effected in Pakistan during the year 1964 and the increase or decrease in comparison with the previous year.

Thousand rupees

	No. of policies	Sum assured	Yearly renewal premium	Average sum assured per policy	Increase or decrease over previous year: No. of policies	Sum assured	Yearly renewal premium
Local Insurers	75,356	541,303	33,733	7.183	+14,974	+104,556	+9,400
Foreign Insurers	18,155	177,423	9,240	9.773	—1,179	+ 5,210	+658
TOTAL:	93,511	718,726	42,973	7.686	+13,795	+109,766	+10,058

Total new business transacted during 1964 was 718.726 million as compared with 608.960 million in 1963. The number of new policies issued in 1964 was 93,511 against 79,716 in 1963. Average sum assured per policy was Rs 7.686 in 1964 compared to Rs 7.936 in 1963.

The following Table shows the trend of new business of local and foreign companies between 1953 and 1964:

Year	Thousand rupees
1953	11,48,65
1954	13,30,54
1955	16,08,58
1956	16,79,00
1957	21,99,33
1958	19,96,05
1959	25,79,90
1960	27,48,47
1961	37,25,24
1962	46,74,90
1963	60,89,60
1964	71,87,26

The following Table shows the total insurance business in Pakistan:

Million rupees

Year	Sums assured: Foreign Insurers	Local Insurers	Total
1953	220.3	192.9	413.1
1964	950.5	1,553.2	2,503.7

Some Pakistani companies transact life insurance in foreign countries as shown below:

Million rupees

Year	No. of Policies	Total No. of Policies upto	Sum assured	Total sum assured upto	Annual Premium income
1963	126	—	1.266	5.040	0.198
1964	287	1,198	2.040	6.052	0.316

General Insurance

Fairly good progress has also been made by general insurance. The gross direct premiums from all types of insurance in 1964 stood at Rs 144.5 million. Fire insurance was the biggest source and accounted for Rs 56.5 million followed by marine insurance with Rs 54.8 million. Miscellaneous insurance accounted for Rs 33.1 million.

Pakistan Insurance Corporation

The year 1965-66 has shown continued alround expansion of business of the Corporation. The gross premium has increased from Rs 67.455 million in 1964 to Rs 77.298 million in 1965. The Investment of the Corporation at the end of 1965 amounted to Rs 31.04 million against Rs 25.789 million of the previous year. The net profit of the Corporation for the year 1965 was Rs 2.334 million as against Rs. 2.017 million in 1964. The Corporation has declared a 10 per cent dividend for the year 1965 which is the maximum permissible under the Pakistan Insurance Corporation Act, 1952.

Investments

Life insurance is becoming an important source of capital formation in Pakistan. Total investments of all the companies at the end of 1964 stood at Rs 386.81 million compared to Rs 335.1 million at the end of 1963. Of Rs 386.81 million local companies contributed Rs 199.55 million and foreign companies Rs 187.26 million.

OTHER FINANCIAL INSTITUTION

Industrial Development Bank

The Industrial Development Bank of Pakistan, a successor to the Industrial Finance Corporation of 1949, is, in addition to being a normal commercial bank, a specialised institution dealing with long term credit to small and medium size industries, normally upto a maximum of Rs 2.5 million including a foreign exchange component not exceeding Rs 1.5 million. It provides loans both in local and foreign currency with a view to accelerating the tempo of industrial development. It has an authorized capital of Rs 30 million which is fully subscribed, the majority being held by the government. The Bank administers several foreign credits on behalf of the government and negotiates directly with international agencies for long-term credit.

In the five years of its existence the Bank has provided assistance to 2,718 projects with a total loan of 1,124 million rupees.

Industrial Credit & Investment Corporation

The Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corporation is a public limited company with foreign and domestic private investors, and with some government representation on its board of directors. It has an authorized share capital of Rs 150 million. Its initial paid up capital upto 1963 amounted to Rs 40 million, 60 per cent of which has been subscribed by Pakistani investors and the balance by American, British, Japanese and others. Along with the Industrial Development Bank, the Corporation acts as the channel by which foreign loans negotiated by the Government, reach the private sector. It provides medium term loans in foreign and local currencies in addition to equity participation. For large projects, it shares their financing, wherever possible, with other institutions abroad. It also underwrites shares as part of its programme to assist in the development of the capital market. It has received long-term loans from the central government totalling Rs 70 million, and credits in foreign currencies from the International Bank (IBRD), the Agency for International Development (AID), West Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom, France, Yugoslavia, Czechosolvakia, Poland and Italy, totalling nearly 1,000 million rupees.

The total assistance given since the beginning of its operation in 1958 upto June, 1966 amounted to 1,412 million rupees.

Agricultural Development Bank

The Agricultural Development Bank, with a network of over one hundred branches, sub-branches and pay offices in all parts of the country, provides credit facilities to agriculturists (which includes those engaged in fisheries, forestry, animal husbandry, poultry farming, dairying, sericulture etc). Besides individuals, public and private limited companies engaged in agricultural activity are also eligible for loans. Short term loans are offered for such requirements as seed, fertilizers, plant protection measures; medium term loans for implements, purchase of animals, digging of wells; and long term loans for major improvements like installation of tube-wells, purchase of tractors.

An expanded programme, consistent with the Third Plan targets, has been prepared for a total lending of Rs 800 million during the Plan period.

The procedure for obtaining loans is simple, and recovery is made in easy instalments and on convenient occasions, like the harvesting of the principal crops.

The paid-up share capital of the Bank is Rs 100 million and the authorised capital is Rs 200 million.

House Building Finance Corporation

The House Building Finance Corporation was set up in 1952 provides long-term loans to individuals and co-operative societies for constructing houses in urban areas. Its entire share capital of Rs 50 million has been subscribed by the government. The Corporation is authorised to raise funds through the issue of government-guaranteed bonds and debentures not exceeding five times its paid-up

capital and reserve funds. The State Bank has provided assistance to it by taking up its debentures to the amount of Rs 100 million as at June, 1966. Loans are granted against the mortgage of moveable or immovable properties of the borrowers or their sureties, as well as against the security of plots of land and houses to be constructed thereon. Loans range between 2,000 to 40,000 rupees and are recoverable over a period of 15 years in monthly instalments. Upto June, 1966 the Corporation had made loans of over 333 million rupees.

National Investment Trust

National Investment Trust was set up in 1962 as a new medium of investments, broadly on the lines of Unit Trusts operating in the United Kingdom. The institution was promoted by the Government in association with three leading Banks, two industrial finance institutions, three leading industrialists with investments in both the wings, and the Pakistan Insurance Finance Corporation. The Trust has been very successful in the four years of its operation in changing savings into investments and giving small savers an opportunity to participate in the industrialisation of the country and so to share directly its profits. Upto March 1966 the total capital raised from sales of units was Rs 80 million. The NIT is one of the most active investors on the stock exchange.

Investment Corporation

In March 1966, the National Assembly passed the Investment Corporation of Pakistan Ordinance 1966. Accordingly, the Corporation was set up, with the function of broadening the base of investments and developing the capital market in Pakistan. Its main function is to underwrite share and debenture issues and to provide a mechanism by which the equities of public limited companies will be effectively distributed to as wide a group of savers as possible.

The general superintendence and direction of the Corporation vests in a board of directors including a chairman and a managing director who are appointed by the central government. Its paid-up share capital is Rs 50 million.

Stock Exchange

The Karachi Stock Exchange had a modest beginning in 1949, and in 1954 another small exchange was set up at Dacca. Since then their activities and their membership have expanded several times over. The number of securities quoted has also greatly increased. Banks usually negotiate the purchase and sale of government securities with the State Bank through brokers. The major market for gilt-edged securities is at Karachi and normal business from all over the country is passed on to it.

The scope of the stock market was widened in 1960, when non-residents were allowed to invest in shares listed in the Stock Exchange. With the introduction of an export bonus scheme a new item of business was added and bonus vouchers have been regularly quoted on the stock exchange. Another broading development is that

insurance companies have been permitted to hold in their portfolios approved shares quoted on the stock exchange.

MONETARY MANAGEMENT

Several events in the early history of Pakistan had immediate effect on the monetary position in the country. One was the devaluation of the pound sterling (followed by that of the Indian rupee), and another was the outbreak of the Korean war.

With Pakistan's decision not to devalue her rupee in September 1949 there followed a scramble for imports. Influenced by rumours of impending devaluation, importers started heavy speculative booking of forward exchange which threatened to strain the foreign exchange position, and a substantial diversion of bank finance to the import trade took place at the cost of export finance. State Bank stepped in with a restrictive order about booking of foreign exchange.

The outbreak of the Korean war in 1951 on the other handled to steep rise in the demand and prices of Pakistani exportable products. This resulted in sizeable surplus in the balance of payment and a sharp increase in the money supply. However, full monetization of this surplus money supply was prevented by fiscal measure. The Korean boom was followed by a recession which affected the foreign exchange earnings and a steep fall in foreign exchange reserves took place. This again necessitated certain credit restrictions.

From 1953 there was a period of continuous increase in government expenditure, unaccompanied by any corresponding rise in the public revenues and non-inflationary borrowing. As deficits were mostly covered by borrowings from the State Bank, a substantial rise occurred in money supply and the total effective demand. On the other hand there was a decline in availabilities due to a restrictive import policy and a shortfall in food production. The devaluation in 1955 temporarily improved the balance of payments, but large overseas government expenditure, particularly on food imports, and continuing deterioration in terms of trade, created new strains.

The new Government that took over in October, 1958 abandoned the policy of deficit budgeting and monetary policy assumed a new role. The task of countering the effects of expansionary fiscal policy gave place to that of reinforcing fiscal action designed to check inflationary pressure. For the first time since the establishment of State Bank of Pakistan the bank rate was raised from 3 per cent to 4 per cent. This was followed by a rise in the advance rate of commercial banks and of some other credit institutions. Under tne impact of such a stabilisation measure the rates of monetary expanding slowed down considerably, bank credit to the private sector declined, and the price situation improved. Later a higher level of commodity prices, rise in industrial production, and increased quantum of imports necessitated substantial stepping up in bank lending. Thereafter, a very close eye was kept on the monetary position and regulative measures were continuously adopted to offset such effects as were created by a greatly accelerated pace of economic development.

During recent years, there has been continuous monetary expansion, with an average annual rate of ten per cent during the Second Plan period (1960-65). Since the third year of the Second Plan the rate of expansion was faster because the government shifted to a policy of freer economy. Price and distribution controls and administrative restrictions on private investment were either abolished or relaxed, and import policy was liberalized, with as many as 51 items, mostly raw material for domestic industry, placed on the free list. As a result, the private sector over-fulfilled the Second Plan investment targets.

During the latter half of 1964, the rate of increase in money supply became very sharp mainly owing to the accelerated rise in bank credit for the private sector. As the growth in availabilities failed to keep pace with the growth in monetary expansion, price pressures began to develop in the economy. In order to relieve the situation the State Bank introduced a number of credit restrictions during January-June, 1965. These were: (1) imposition of 25 per cent margin requirement against the opening of letters of credit for importers, (2) tightening of the Quota System* and broadening of its coverage, (3) raising of Bank Rate from 4 per cent to 5 per cent, and (4) increase in two equal instalments of $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent each in the cash reserve requirement from the scheduled banks—raising it from 5 per cent to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Following these measures, the growth of bank credit as well as of money supply slowed down enabling the State Bank to make certain relaxations in its credit policy in the beginning of 1965-66. The Quota System was withdrawn and the cash reserve requirement of the scheduled banks reduced from $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent to 5 per cent in two stages. In addition, a number of relaxations were made in selective credit controls.

During 1965-66 the rate of monetary expansion picked up again, the rise in money supply amounting to Rs 1,221.4 million as compared with the rise of Rs 681.7 million in the preceding year.

Unlike 1964-65 when the private sector was primarily responsible for the increase in money supply, the main expansionary influence during 1965-66 came from the government sector. This was due mainly to the conditions created by Indian aggression in September, 1965, since it called for increased defence outlay. Partly to the same source must be traced the slowing down in the rate of credit expansion in the private sector. Another reason for this was stricter government import licensing policy, although the credit policy was itself relaxed by the State Bank.

One aim of economic policy has been to maintain price stability while accelerating economic development. Accordingly a remarkable degree of price stability was achieved throughout the first four years

*The Quota System was introduced earlier in 1963 to regulate scheduled banks' borrowings from the State Bank. It stipulated progressively increasing cost of borrowing from the State Bank.

of the Second Plan. However, during 1964-65 the price situation came under heavy pressure, and there was a rise in the wholesale index by 7.5 per cent owing to the faster increase in monetary demand than in availabilities. During 1965-66 the increase in the whole sale price index was lower, by 4.5 per cent.

THE BUDGET AT A GLANCE

REVENUE BUDGET *Million rupees*

Receipts :	1965-66 Budget	1965-66 Revised	1966-67 Budget
1. Customs	1,229.0	1,117.5	1,342.5
2. Central Excise Duties	962.5	937.2	1,124.1
3. Income Tax and Corporation Tax ..	808.5	730.0	815.2
4. Sales Tax	806.5	780.0	1,063.8
5. Interest Receipts	594.2	592.7	647.1
6. Currency and Mint	59.6	59.9	67.0
7. Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone (net Receipt)	66.8	65.6	88.0
8. Defence Services	115.5	89.4	110.0
9. Other Revenue	361.2	325.0	377.9
Total Receipt	5,003.8	4,697.3	5,635.6
Expenditure :			
1. Revenue Collecting Department ..	56.5	46.8	54.5
2. Civil Administration	474.1	449.9	457.8
3. Defence Services	1,360.9	2,710.0	2,250.0
4. Civil Works and Central Road Fund ..	26.3	35.2	17.8
5. Interest Payment	473.8	464.8	521.5
6. Grants to Provincial Government (Non-Development)	40.8	42.7	40.0
7. Other Non-Development Expenditure ..	363.6	250.6	173.1
8. Grants to Provincial Governments ..	423.8	335.7	98.9
9. Other Development Expenditure ..	111.0	68.4	123.7
10. Less : Development Expenditure met from Foreign Aid and Reserve Funds ..	—347.3	—270.2	16.3
Total—Expenditure	2,983.5	4,133.9	3,721.0
Provincial Share	1,234.8	1,099.0	1,277.8
Revenue Surplus	785.5	—535.6	636.8

CAPITAL BUDGET

Million rupees

	1965-66 Budget	1965-66 Revised	1966-67 Budget
Development Expenditure:			
Direct Outlay by the Central Government			
1. Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone ..	144.2	123.0	188.5
2. Irrigation	379.6	418.4	462.5
3. Industrial Development	35.2	27.5	33.5
4. Civil Aviation	58.9	48.3	87.1
5. Broadcasting	17.1	13.8	26.5
6. Ports	12.9	40.0	17.5
7. New Federal Capitals	122.2	127.5	125.0
8. Food Storage and Other Works ..	75.3	94.9	186.1
9. Civil Works	42.6	25.1	34.7
10. Miscellaneous Investments	65.6	48.9	61.5
11. Other Expenditure	11.4	12.2	11.3
12. Loans to semi-Independent Bodies, etc. ..	15.3	96.0	52.9
13. Loans and Grants to Provincial Governments	2,298.7	1,569.3	2,848.0
14. Add-Reserve for Additional Loans ..	—	—	214.9
15. Less: Likely shortfall in Expenditure ..	—54.8	—	—
Total—Development Expenditure	3,224.2	2,522.5	4,350.0
Financed From—			
1. Revenue Surplus	785.5	—535.6	636.8
2. Debt raised in Pakistan (net)	200.0	405.5	200.0
3. Foreign Debt (net)	2,308.5	1,768.8	2,507.1
4. Floating Debt (net)	178.1	1,058.1	—28.0
5. Unfunded Debt (net)	182.2	63.1	196.0
6. Recoveries of Loans and Advances ..	158.9	146.6	180.3
7. Accretions to Reserve Funds	254.7	558.8	372.1
8. Other Deposits and Remittances (net) ..	—77.7	—158.7	210.9
9. Other Capital Receipts	51.4	110.0	127.0
10. Cash Balance utilization	16.0	—28.4	365.6
Total Resources	4,037.6	3,388.2	4,793.0
Non-Development	463.4	765.7	293.0
Expenditure Contingency Item ..	350.0	100.0	150.0
Total Disbursements	4,037.6	3,388.2	4,793.0

Source: *Ministry of Finance.*

APPENDIX I

The Budget for 1967-68

The budget for the year 1967-68 was submitted to the National Assembly on June 10, 1967. The revenue receipts have been estimated at Rs 6,383.8 million and of the total receipts, a sum of Rs 1,347.0 million will be payable to the provinces as their share and a sum of Rs 3,802.3 million has been earmarked for revenue expenditure during the year. The year is thus estimated to end with a revenue surplus of Rs 1,234.5 million.

Revenue Receipts and Expenditure

TABLE
THE BUDGETS FOR 1966-67 AND 1967-68

Million rupees

	1966-67 *Budget*	1966-67 *Revised*	1967-68 *Budget*
Revenue Receipts ..	5,962.1	5,648.9	6,383.8
Revenue Expenditure	3,721.0	3,714.0	3,802.3
Provincial Share ..	1,251.9	1,286.9	1,347.0
Surplus ..	98.92	648.0	1,234.5

Source: *Ministry of Finance*

Capital Receipts and Expenditure

The capital receipts for the year 1967-68 are estimated at Rs 5,624.2 million. The estimate of capital disbursements which cover capital assistance given to the provinces in the form of loans and grants is placed at Rs 5,669.9 million. The overall account thus shows a deficit of Rs 45.7 million which is proposed to be covered by continuing for another year the refundable surcharge on income tax, introduced last year. The refundable surcharge is estimated to yield Rs 46.0 million or Rs 0.3 million more than the gap between resources and expenditure.

There is no proposal for fresh taxation. However, a number of proposals have been included for tax rationalisation and adjustments, and also for tax relief.

The proposal for rationalisation of customs will yield Rs 177.0 million as additional revenue. Central Excise is estimated to yield an additional Rs 5.0 million which will be offset by the relief proposed in Excise. Measures for the rationalisation of Income Tax of Rs 26.5 million, and the relief in Sales Tax, in another Rs 5.0 million.

After adjustment of the provincial share necessitated by reduction in the net yield from Income Tax, the net loss from these two sources will amount to Rs 11.8 million against the gains of Rs 177.0 million from customs. The year will thus close with a nominal surplus of Rs 5.5 million.

Tax Reliefs

Excise Duty and Sales Tax on several items of daily use have been removed. The main items include laundry soap, fountain pens, ball point pens and pencils, pencil sharpeners, plastic geometrical instruments, mugs, tumblers, spoons, combs and spectacles, brassware, hurricane lantern chimneys, plain tumblers and feeding bottles.

Some relief in the field of direct taxation has also been offered. The income tax schedule is proposed to be revised, reducing the existing rates by 2½ per cent uniformly in each slab of taxable income where the rate exceeds 2½ per cent, and to apply the highest marginal rate of tax of 70 per cent on a taxable income above 0.1 million in place of the present ceiling of Rs 60,000. Education allowance has been extended to persons having incomes upto Rs 50,000 per annum. At present it is not admissible to a tax-payer whose income is more than Rs 25,000.

Incentives

The Budget offers incentive measures to accelerate savings which include the added attractions to the Prize Bond Scheme; enhancement of the exemption limit of dividend income; increase in the rate of interest in the case of Postal Life Insurance and extension of interest-free treatment to time deposits with co-operative funds and societies.

Cut in Defence Expenditure

There is a reduction of 24 per cent in the country's defence expenditure for the next year, which stood at Rs 2,855.0 million in 1965-66, this is as a proof, as the Finance minister said, of "our earnest desire to reach an honourable settlement in a peaceful manner on all our outstanding issues with India, including that of Kashmir".

Development Expenditure

A prominent feature of the new budget is the sharp rise over last year's figure in development spending. The provision for the development programme in this year's budget has been raised to Rs 5,700.0 million, of which Rs 2,630.0 million have been allocated to East Pakistan, Rs 2,120.0 million to West Pakistan and Rs 950.0 million to central projects, located both in East and West Pakistan. The larger allocation for East Pakistan is in line with the Government's objective of removing inter-regional disparities. The programme will be financed to the extent of Rs 298.0 million from internal resources and Rs 2,720.0 million from external resources, including project and non-project assistance and the counterpart funds generated by the sale of PL-480 commodities. The percentage of internal and external resources would thus be 52.3 and 47.7 which is an improvement over the current year's percentage of domestic and foreign resources of 51.2 and 48.8. The Central Government will provide financial assistance in the order of Rs 1,960.0 to East Pakistan and Rs 1,340.0 million to West Pakistan. This will be in addition to transfers by way of revenue assignments which on the basis of present estimates amount to Rs 680.0 million in the case of East Pakistan and Rs 670.0 million in the case of West Pakistan.

THE BUDGET AT A GLANCE

Million rupees

	1966-67 *Budget*	1966-67 *Revised*	1967-68 *Budget*
REVENUE BUDGET			
Receipts:			
Customs	1,455.0	1,250.0	1,452.1
Central Excise Duties	1,444.6	1,462.5	1,601.3
Income Tax and Corporation Tax ..	815.7	740.0	880.0
Sales Tax	1,016.3	967.1	1,082.0
Interest Receipts	647.1	639.8	731.0
Currency and Mint	67.0	67.2	72.4
Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone (net receipts)	93.0	92.6	113.8
Defence Services	110.0	106.8	110.0
Other Revenue	313.4	322.9	341.2
Total Receipts ..	5,962.1	5,648.9	6,383.8
Expenditure:			
Non-Development Expenditure			
Revenue Collecting Departments ..	54.5	51.8	63.7
Civil Administration	457.8	470.9	499.2
Defence Services	2,250.0	2,250.0	2,180.0
Civil Works and Central Road Fund ..	17.8	18.7	42.3
Interest Payments	521.5	530.2	620.2
Grants to Provincial Governments ..	40.0	39.1	40.0
Other Non-Development Expenditure ..	173.1	157.6	151.9
Development Expenditure—			
Grants to Provincial Governments ..	98.9	222.5	380.5
Other Development Expenditure ..	123.7	102.4	132.0
Less Development Expenditure met from Foreign Aid and Reserve Funds ..	—16.3	—129.2	—307.5
Total Expenditure ..	3,721.0	3,714.0	3,802.3
Provincial Share of Taxes	1,251.9	1,286.9	1,347.0
Revenue Surplus	989.2	648.0	1,234.5

Million rupees

CAPITAL BUDGET

	1966-67 *Budget*	1966-67 *Revised*	1967-68 *Budget*
Development Expenditure:			
Direct Outlay by the Central Government—			
Post Office, Telegraph and Telephone ..	188.5	158.5	183.5
Irrigation (Net)	462.5	503.2	724.7
Industrial Development	33.5	26.7	25.4
Civil Aviation	87.2	87.2	95.6
Broadcasting	26.5	12.0	26.0
Ports	17.5	14.6	31.5
New Federal Capitals	125.0	115.2	140.0
Civil Works	34.7	42.0	53.0
Food Storage and Other Works	186.1	144.5	162.8
Miscellaneous Investments	61.5	55.4	65.3
Other Expenditure	11.3	9.7	11.5
Loans and Grants to Provincial Governments	3,088.8	2,550.5	3,542.7
Loans to semi-Independent Bodies etc. ..	52.9	45.9	24.8
Total—Development Expenditure	4,375.9	3,765.4	5,086.8
Non-Development Expenditure ..	293.0	365.7	433.2
Contingency	150.0	100.0	150.0
Total-Disbursements	4,818.9	4,231.1	5,670.0
Financed from:			
Revenue Surplus	989.2	648.0	1,234.5
Debt Raised in Pakistan (net)	250.0	34.8	320.0
Foreign Loans and Grants	2,507.1	2,224.5	2,723.0
Floating Debt (net)	—2.8	—160.2	18.8
Unfunded Debt (net)	196.0	117.5	184.8
Recoveries of Loans and Advances ..	180.3	183.7	218.4
Accretions to Reserve Funds	372.1	442.9	475.6
Other Deposits and Remittances (net) ..	210.9	246.3	191.8
Other Capital Receipts	127.0	448.2	257.3
Cash Balance Utilization	—10.9	45.4	45.8
Total-Resources ..	4,818.9	4,231.1	5,670.0

APPENDIX II

EAST PAKISTAN BUDGET FOR 1967-68

The East Pakistan budget for 1967-68 was presented to the Provincial Assembly on June 12, 1967. The revenue receipts for the year have been estimated at Rs 1,313.3 million and non-development expenditure has been shown as Rs 1,033.3 million, leaving a surplus of Rs 280.0 million.

The developmental expenditure has been shown as Rs 2,635.0 million and the funds expected to be available for financing the development programme are shown as Rs 2,430.0 million, leaving a gap of Rs 200.5 million which is to be met by additional taxation and improvements and the expected operational shortfall in development expenditure.

Taxes amounting to Rs 12.0 million have been proposed to be levied as an additional development and relief tax at the rate of 50 paisa per acre of land. Another amount of Rs 8.0 million has been proposed to be raised through improvements in realization of government taxes. The expected operational shortfall has been shown as Rs 185.0 million.

Salient Features

Top-most priority is given to agriculture with a view to attaining self-sufficiency in food-grains by 1970; greater emphasis on projects yielding quick results in all sectors; consolidation in the industrial sector on the basis of fuller utilisation of installed capacity, together with selective expansion of industries benefitting agriculture and exports; and postponing or reducing capital and import intensive industries.

Projects in other sector serving agriculture directly or indirectly have also been given priorities. The allocation for the agriculture sector has been Rs 374.0 million i.e. 32 per cent of the annual development programme.

Disinvestment

East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation envisages to disinvest some of its projects to mobilise the required amount of Rs 65.0 million to supplement the province's own contribution to the annual development programme.

East Pakistan parties, either singly or in groups, will be given preference when the disinvestment of the EPIDC projects will be done.

In disinvesting the projects adequate care will be taken to ensure that monopolies are not created or strategic industries are not handed over to the private sector.

THE BUDGET AT GLANCE

Million rupees

I.	**Receipts**	
	(*a*) Provincial taxes	335.7
	(*b*) Other Provincial sources	301.2
	(*c*) Share of Central taxes	676.4
	Total Receipts	1,313.3
II.	**Non-development expenditure**	1,033.3
	Revenue surplus	280.0
III.	**Development Expenditure**	
	Annual Development Programme	2,635.0
IV.	**Financing of the development Programme**	
	(*a*) Revenue surplus	280.0
	(*b*) Capital receipts	194.3
	(*c*) Central assistance	1,384.0
	(*d*) Foreign project aid	571.7
	Total	2,430.0
V.	**Gap in resources**	205.0
VI.	**Proposals for meeting the gap**	
	(*a*) Expected operational shortfall in development expenditure	185.0
	(*b*) New taxes and improvements	20.0
	Total	205.0

APPENDIX III

WEST PAKISTAN BUDGET FOR 1967-68

The West Pakistan budget for 1967-68 was presented to the Provincial Assembly on June 14, 1967. The budget shows revenue receipts estimated at Rs 1,936.5 million and revenue expenditure of Rs 1,933.0 million, leaving a surplus of Rs 2.7 million.

TABLE

Million rupees

		1966-67 Revised	1967-68 Budget
Revenue Receipts	..	1,775.6	1,936.5
Revenue Expenditure	..	1,606.0	1,933.8
Surplus	..	177.6	2.7

There has been an increase on the receipts as well as on the expenditure side. The increase is partly due to increase in the share of revenue assignments from the Centre and partly due to a definite and vigorous plan which has been prepared to maximise recovery of taxation.

On the non-developmental side expenditure there is an increase of Rs 61.7 million which is partly due to increase in interest on fresh borrowing for development, increased expenditure due to revision in pension rates and, partly due to continuing expenditure in the field of education.

In the development expenditure highest allocation, that is, Rs 817.7 million has gone to the water and power sector. The schemes in the power sector include electrification of 200 villages. The agriculture sector comes next with Rs 296.9 million. The allocation to Industry sector is Rs 159.1 million. Fifty per cent of this allocation will be spent on agriculture oriented industry, such as, fertilisers, insecticides, agricultural machinery and edible oils. Rs 100.0 million have been earmarked for rural works programme. A sum of Rs 300,000 has been provided for a scheme to cover death during service of Class III and IV Government employees.

Comparatively less developed areas of the province have been given increased share so that the lot of the common man in these areas may improve.

Tax Relief

The budget proposes no fresh taxes and instead provides certain relief measures, including the abolition of the toll on fare and freight on inland water traffic and also on vessels plying within the limits of Karachi District, the fee of Rs 25.00 currently charged by Government for the registration of voluntary social welfare organisations, and the fee of Rs 5.00 charged for the registration of trade unions. Construction of new houses has also been exempted from property tax for a period of three years ending June, 1970 to encourage construction of new houses.

THE BUDGET AT A GLANCE

REVENUE BUDGET

Million rupees

Receipts	Budget Estimate 1967-68	Revised Estimate 1966-67	Budget Estimate 1966-67	Accounts 1965-66
Customs ..	12.800	11.400	13.800	10.450
Central Excise Duties ..	102.764	100.924	83.400	73.600
Corporation Tax ..	65.800	55.700	57.845	47.691
Taxes on income other than Corporation Tax (inclusive of receipt collected under Martial Law Regulation No. 43) ..	180.631	170.591	183.303	148.408
Sales Tax ..	310.300	270.008	296.500	243.484
Land Revenue (Net) ..	89.351	81.670	85.382	113.903
Provincial Excise ..	38.881	40.107	31.056	39.898
Stamps ..	56.233	54.140	52.893	55.022
Forests ..	48.263	45.370	40.366	43.972
Receipts under Motor Vehicles Acts	69.453	64.616	61.401	63.476
Other Taxes and Duties ..	114.534	105.784	103.139	95.805
Railways (Net Receipts) ..	17.385	12.857	9.265	—
Irrigation (Net Receipts) ..	189.008	187.998	152.628	113.361
Debt Services ..	228.520	191.923	199.534	180.182
Civil Administration ..	19.279	19.877	18.741	21.037
Beneficent Department ..	99.125	75.982	86.568	66.362
Civil Works and Miscellaneous Public Improvements ..	5.529	5.607	5.428	10.964
Miscellaneous ..	45.179	42.708	40.224	71.112
Contribution and Miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments ..	148.351	161.320	162.850	192.863
Extraordinary items ..	88.474	78.079	84.992	73.857
Other Heads ..	6.646	6.314	6.269	5.718
Total Receipts: ..	1,936.506	1,782.967	1,775.584	1,671.165

Million rupees

Expenditure	*Budget Estimate* 1967-68	*Revised Estimate* 1966-67	*Budget Estimate* 1966-67	*Accounts* 1965-66
Direct Demands on the Revenue . .	71.997	67.353	69.147	64.906
Irrigation (excluding interest) . .	8.241	7.872	8.243	21.563
Debt Services (inclusive of interest on Capital Outlay of Commercial Departments) . .	369.356	325.720	345.749	306.569
General Administration . .	72.505	65.174	67.950	68.125
Police . .	115.270	127.764	140.772	133.917
Frontier Regions . .	21.148	18.908	20.813	18.137
Education . .	314.326	287.998	298.536	281.970
Health Services . .	78.529	70.609	76.187	70.933
Agriculture . .	60.130	57.237	59.720	48.659
Veterinary . .	17.043	15.372	16.556	13.236
Industries . .	9.082	8.990	9.251	10.362
Development Expenditure . .	508.567	324.230	359.932	326.273
Civil Works & Miscellaneous Public Improvements . .	79.082	76.734	80.492	63.721
Miscellaneous . .	84.115	83.968	81.442	132.505
Extraordinary items . .	—	—	—	—
Contingency Item . .	50.000	10.000	30.000	—
Other Heads . .	74.412	58.098	60.090	56.459
Total Expenditure . .	1,933.803	1,606.027	1,724.880	1,617.353
Surplus . .	2.703	176.940	50.704	53.830
Total . .	1,936.506	1,782.967	1,775.584	1,671.165

Source: *Government of West Pakistan : White Paper* 1967-68 (Vol. IX)

CAPITAL BUDGET

Million rupees

	Budget Estimate 1967-68	Revised Estimate 1966-67	Budget Estimate 1966-67
DEVELOPMENT EXPENDITURE			
(*a*) Capital Outlay (Gross)			
Salt Works ..	0.039	0.321	0.350
Pakistan Western Railways (as per Railway Budget) ..	290.000	243.468	266.100
Irrigation ..	130.739	71.277	110.791
Improvement of Public Health ..	36.820	27.736	36.705
Agriculture Improvement and Research	35.495	19.828	21.799
Industrial Development ..	97.425	60.701	82.888
Town Development ..	19.899	13.375	25.781
Civil Works ..	295.521	206.721	271.198
Miscellaneous Provincial Investments ..	—	0.022	—
(*b*) Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government			
WAPDA ..	629.254	397.387	503.815
Karachi Milk Board ..	0.600	1.120	1.200
Lahore Milk Board ..	0.620	1.400	1.500
Pakistan Western Railways ..	147.756	129.872	129.872
Agricultural Development Corporation	92.383	68.771	78.254
Karachi Development Authority ..	8.500	8.300	9.000
West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation (Small Industries Division)	5.390	5.112	6.107
Co-operative Development Board ..	—	1.643	2.681
Agriculturists ..	—	—	—
Local Bodies ..	8.129	5.310	6.319
Improvement Trusts ..	22.000	0.500	1.800
Other Development Loans ..	7.500	5.120	5.570
Total Development Expenditure ..	1,828.070	1,267.984	1,561.730

Source: *Government of West Pakistan : White Paper* 1967-68 (Vol. IX)

14. INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION

ASSISTANCE TO PAKISTAN

Pakistan, like other developing countries, has received considerable economic assistance from friendly, and more prosperous nations. From a modest beginning in 1949-50 the assistance rose considerably in the sixties as the country showed its capacity to make the best use of whatever assistance came as well as a determination not to allow it to become a substitute for its own effort. The United Nations named the sixties the Development Decade, and had asked affluent nations to contribute at least one per cent of their gross national product to such assistance. Although this level has not been reached, the aid did, on the whole, increase in the first half of that period.

Pakistan's need for assistance rose from the fact that its territories started from a particularly undeveloped stage and heavy investment was needed in practically all spheres of activity. Foreign exchange

was required not only for the import of capital goods but also for a host of consumer goods that formerly used to be supplied to this region from the territories now forming the Indian Union. The country's foreign earnings from its primary products, mainly raw jute and cotton, substantial as they were, could scarcely suffice to meet its manifold needs. These needs were presently enlarged by a sudden, but thereafter persisting, shortfall in food production.

Reducing Dependence on Aid

The requirement of foreign assistance further increased in the recent past as development activity became more intense and purposive. There is now a determined bid in the country to reduce dependence on foreign assistance as far and as quickly as possible. Already this has been bringing in results. The Second Five-Year Plan (1960-65) had stipulated that about 50 per cent of the total foreign exchange requirement (of Rs 22,200 million) will have to be obtained from external sources in the form of loans and credits, technical assistance and foreign private investments. In the event foreign aid accounted for only 36 per cent of the total imports during the period. Project aid and loan disbursement was 55 per cent of the original Plan target. This became possible because the country's own foreign exchange earnings outshot the target.

In the Third Plan the percentage of dependence on foreign assistance has been further reduced. From 38 per cent of the total outlay it has been brought to 32 per cent. Present indications again are that in implementation the dependence would be further reduced. Already the 1969-70 target of foreign exchange earning through exports is being achieved during 1966-67.

Forms of Assistance

In early years all foreign commitments were confined to technical and project assistance. Later, when harvests failed in 1951 and 1953, wheat shipments were received from the USA, Canada and Australia. Non-project assistance was extended by the USA for the first time in 1954-55 and surplus agricultural commodities provided under their Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954 (Public Law 480). The scale of assistance under this legislation was expanded as food deficits grew larger.

There are now five different categories of assistance:

(*a*) Technical assistance, which provides for the training of nationals, services of experts and consultants, and equipment for training institutions and research purposes.

(*b*) Project aid consisting of capital goods and other materials and services that are meant to be used in development projects.

(*c*) Non-project commodity shipments of raw materials, fuels, spares, and other essential supplies.

(*d*) Foodgrains.

(*e*) Emergency aid, such as flood relief.

The first two are entirely investment aids. The third consist of

intermediate goods like iron and steel which serve development purposes. The supply of foodgrains has also in large part been serving this end. The sale proceeds of US and Canadian commodities in Pakistan are kept in the State Bank for expenditure on development in Pakistan in consultation with the donor governments.

Thus an overwhelming part of the aid is utilised in economic development, as distinct from mere maintenance of the economy.

Sources of Assistance

Pakistan has received assistance from individual countries bilaterally and multilaterally, directly and through international agencies.

United Nations

United Nations' assistance was the earliest to come. In pursuance of the U.N. Charter (Article 55) the General Assembly at its third regular session in 1948 appropriated 288,000 dollars to member governments for the purpose of promoting higher standards of living, full employment, and conditions of economic and social progress. It recommended that the Economic and Social Council and the Specialised Agencies should give further consideration to the whole problem of economic development of under-developed countries in all its aspects. A programme of technical assistance was formulated. This small beginning was expanded as years passed, and, in 1950, was supplemented by the "Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance" for fighting ignorance, poverty and hunger. The programme is carried on through different UN specialised agencies, including UNESCO, ILO, WHO, FAO and UNICEF. Some of these organisations have, in addition, regular budgets of their own for technical assistance to developing countries in their particular fields.

Pakistan receives technical assistance from these agencies in the form of equipment, expertise and training facilities. Comprehensive economic and social surveys or specialist investigations affecting important aspects of the economy of the country are also conducted with the assistance of foreign experts. Assistance operations are administered through the UN Technical Assistance Board (UNTAB) which has its Resident Representative in the country. Requirements judged to be urgent and important are placed in category I and funds are committed. Others fall in Category II and depend upon savings, if any.

Colombo Plan

The Commonwealth Foreign Ministers met in Colombo in January 1950 and decided to set up a Consultative Committee with the object of surveying the capital and technical resources and the needs of the member countries of South and South East Asia and finding out ways for an international co-operative effort to assist them. The Committee, which developed into the concept of the "Colombo Plan" initially comprised Australia, Canada, Ceylon, India, New Zealand, Pakistan, the United Kingdom, and some of the territories of the last named. Others were invited to participate. The first meeting of the Committee in 1950 recommended that each country draw

up a Six-Year Development Plan, and also reached an agreement to set up a Technical Co-operation Scheme with a special fund of eight million dollars contributed by original member states.

Among the countries that gave assistance to Pakistan under this programme were Canada, The United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand and Japan. The United Kingdom and Japan have mainly provided training facilities, while the others named, especially Canada, gave in addition, capital assistance. Pakistan also made its contribution under the Plan, by offering training facilities to ten south-east Asian countries.

The USA

Beginning with its Point Four Programme of assistance to developing countries, the USA has provided the largest amount of aid so far received by Pakistan. Its main assistance programmes are as follows:

Development Grants: Mainly for exchange of technical knowledge and flow of investment capitals.

Development Loans: Mainly for financing development projects.

Commodity Assistance: Comprising raw materials, petroleum products, non-ferrous metals, industrial machinery, aircraft parts, chemicals and pharmaceuticals.

PL 480 Programme: Consisting of US surplus agricultural commodities which are given to needing countries under bilateral agreements.

The US assistance began with the provision of $600,000 for technical assistance in 1951 and was followed up by an allocation of $1,000,000. In 1952 began a more direct participation of that country in Pakistan's development: funds were sanctioned not only for the provision of expertise and training but also for supporting specific development projects. The programme developed from year to year. In January 1955 non-project commodity assistance was also started under a bilateral agreement. Beginning with a sum of $40 million the annual commitments increased in the following years. Apart from this, there have been shipments of the US surplus agricultural commodities, both as grants and against sale in local currency, are in response to requests from this country on occasions of emergency. The local currency generated through this aid is further used to finance local relief and to meet some economic development programmes. Starting with a grant of about 610,000 tons of wheat in 1953 this programme of assistance (since then under the US legislation Public Law 480) has also considerably expanded. There has been miscellaneous other assistance received from the USA, some through the Central Treaty Organisation (CENTO) and the South East Asia Treaty Organization (SEATO), and some under USA's own training and exchange programmes.

The Export-Import Bank (*Exim Bank*) of USA is a government sponsored institution of that country. It advances loans in the public and semi-public sectors, both in dollars and in the receiver's own currency. The rate of interest is around 5 to 6 per cent. The purposes for which Pakistan obtained loans from it include wheat shipments in

1952 to meet food shortage, purchase of some cotton processing machinery, in 1961, purchase of aircrafts by PIA, and a chain of hotels to develop tourist trade in the country.

Suppliers' credit, in the form of deferred payment, is made available by various countries, mostly European. The schedule of repayment is arrived at between the foreign supplier and the Pakistani agency (private or semi-public) and Government has to guarantee repayment in each case.

Ford Foundation is a private philanthropic trust of the USA. It provides technical and financial assistance on a grant basis to selected institutions and projects. Starting in December 1955 its assistance in Pakistan has been in the sectors of education, economic development, social research and public administration, in that order.

World Bank

The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD), commonly known as the World Bank, was set up in December 1945 to aid post-War reconstruction. Since Pakistan became a member in July 1950, it has sent out several survey teams to assess the development needs of the country and to investigate specific projects for which the World Bank's assistance has been requested. The Bank has also set up a resident mission in Pakistan. It has rendered very useful financial and technical assistance, more especially in the implementation of the Second, and now the Third, Plans for which it has organised a consortium of a Aid-giving countries. Most invaluable assistance came from the Bank in the settlement of the dispute between India and Pakistan over the distribution of canal waters. It played the role of mediator over several years, brought about agreement over the distribution of rivers between the countries, and organised a consortium of assistance for the vast replacement works needed to make up the loss to Pakistan, the lower riparian country.

The International Finance Corporation (IFC) was established in 1956 as a close affiliate of IBRD, but confines its assistance to private enterprise. Among the loans secured by Pakistan are those for the Steel Corporation, Adamjee Industries and the Garibwal Cement Factory.

The International Development Association (IDA) was set up in 1960, as an affiliate of the World Bank. Its financial resources are however separate from the latter. It aims at helping to develop the infra-structure for economic development. Its terms are therefore liberal. It lends for 50 years with a ten year grace period. The loans carry no interest, but only a service charge of 3/4 per cent per annum. It has made substantial commitments for Pakistan's Second Plan, and is now assisting the Third Plan.

The Consortium

In 1961, the World Bank called for a consortium of countries willing to help Pakistan in its development programme. The idea was that the countries, instead of acting separately, might co-ordinate their commitments and relate them to Pakistan's total needs, under its five-year plans. The first members included Canada, Germany,

Japan, the UK, and the USA. The consortium, varying occasionally in composition, holds annual meetings to pledge assistance to Pakistan's development programme for that year. So far, it has substantially met the foreign assistance requirements of the country's Second Plan, and of the first and second years of the Third Plan. A few countries have helped both through and outside the consortium.

Socialist Countries

The socialist countries which have given assistance include China, Czechoslovakia, Poland, the USSR and Yugoslavia. They have made a very substantial contribution to Pakistan's development. The first offer of credit from the USSR came in 1960, when it offered to help oil exploration in this country. A credit of 27 million roubles ($30 million) for equipment and expertise was agreed. In 1965 China made an offer of an interest-free loan of $60 million to be paid back by the export of Pakistan's commodities over twenty years. The socialist countries in general have been offering convenient terms providing for repayment in terms of commodities.

Defence Pact Organisations

The South East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) and the Central Treaty Organisation (CENTO) established in 1954 and 1955 respectively, primarily as defence pacts, also collaborate in the economic spheres.

CENTO's membership comprises Iran, Turkey, Pakistan, the UK and the USA. The economic benefit under it comes through technical assistance programmes on a bilateral or multilateral basis, the latter provided for by the Multilateral Technical Co-operation Fund. The emphasis is on improving the infra-structure of the regional member countries. Both the UK and USA have given assistance for the development of communication links.

SEATO has eight members: Australia, France, New Zealand, Philippines, Thailand, the UK and the USA. The main economic problem being tackled by this organisation is the shortage of skilled labour in member countries.

Limitations of Assistance

A substantial part of the assistance that Pakistan now receives does not carry liberal terms. Government loans for development are almost invariably 'tied', that is, they are required to be spent in the donor country, in the purchase of equipment and expertise. This limits manoeuvrability, and often purchases have to be made at much higher rates than elsewhere available. Secondly, loans tend to carry a high rate of interest even as much as seven per cent.

Thirdly, the period before which repayment is required to begin, and the instalments in which it has to be made thereafter, both combine to create a rather heavy debt-servicing liability on the country. In most cases repayments are required to be made in foreign exchange.

Pakistan has long been urging against these limiting stipulations, more especially the first, on the ground that they tend to defeat the

purpose of the aid. So far there has been little success in receiving modification.

QUANTUM OF ASSISTANCE

From a modest beginning in 1949-50, foreign assistance has made an increasingly large contribution to the gross national product. It increased from 0.2 per cent of the GNP in 1949-50 to 1.3 per cent in 1964-65. Its share in financing of investments in the country increased from about 14 per cent in 1954-55 to about 40 per cent in 1964-65. In the following paragraphs assistance received upto 1965-66 is first described category-wise, then from different sources or programmes.

Technical Assistance

Colombo Plan

Pakistan has been receiving from member countries of Colombo Plan technical assistance in the form of training facilities, expert advisory services in a number of fields, such as education, medicine, agriculture, power and fuel, engineering, industries, trade, transport, communications, and co-operatives, and also equipment for educational institutions, research organisations, hospitals.

	1950—*June* 1965
Training Facilities	4,339
Experts	874
Technical Co-operation	£ 24,324,970

	Costs in £ Sterling	
	1963-64	1964-65
Trainees	776,182	799,294
Experts	2,233,802	2,289,120
Equipment	335,784	450,561
Total	3,345,768	3,538,975

Canada provided technicians, training facilities, and equipments. Expert services were provided in agriculture, industries, health, finance, cost accountancy, store maintenance, power, etc.

	1950-65	1965-66
Trainees	555	72
Experts	46	2
Costs from 1950 to 1966:	£1,393,546	

The United Kingdom gave training facilities in a large variety of activities such as crop protection, labour administration, trade

unionism, tropical architecture, taxation, plant pathology, technology of stored products, entomology, rodent control, etc.

			1950-65	1965-66
Trainees	..	..	1,271	57
Experts	..	..	148	11
Costs from 1950-66:			£4,251,209	

Australia has likewise given experts' services, training facilities and equipment for research and demonstration. The equipment included microscopes, telecommunications, projectors, generators, wind mills, and agricultural implements.

			1950-65	1965-66
Trainees	..	..	457	24
Experts	..	..	56	1
Costs from 1951-65:	Technical Assistance. £(A)1,223,716			
	Commodity Aid: £ (A) 5.15 million			

New Zealand has provided assistance in those fields where the structure of her economy gave her the widest experience. Preference was for training within the area, provision of experts to be employed, partly at least, for training local personnel, and equipment supplied in conjunction with the services of experts on project aided by New Zealand. Their activities included public health, mining, education, agriculture, and road engineering.

			1950-65	1965-66
Trainees	..	..	79	—
Experts	..	..	18	—
Costs for 1950-60		£138,200		

Japan offered facilities in the fields of agriculture, pest control, cottage industry, ceramics, engineering, etc. Sixteen experts were sent down to demonstrate the Japanese method of rice cultivation. Another team advised the East Pakistan Government on small industries. Expert advisory services were also received in the fields of mining, engineering and communications.

			1950-65	1965-66
Trainees	..	..	167	27
Experts	..	..	100	12
Cost from 1950 to 1966:			£459,163	

The United Nation

The United Nations Special Fund, instituted in 1959, and the Expanded Programme of Technical Assistance provide technical assistance to the pre-investment, research, survey, and pilot projects sponsored by the member states of the UN. These two Programmes are financed through voluntary contributions pledged every year by member countries. Pakistan's total contribution in 1966 was Rs 750,000.

The Governing Council of the Special Fund has so far approved the following seventeen Projects in Pakistan for which it allocated an amount of $21.22 million to be spent on equipment, experts and fellowship:

		$ *million*
1.	Mineral Survey of Pakistan	1.852
2.	Reconnaissance Soil Survey of Pakistan ..	0.818
3.	Training of Engineering and other Technical personnel in West Pakistan	2.365
4.	Management Development, Supervisory and Instructors Training in East Pakistan	1.410
5.	Hydrological Survey of East Pakistan ..	1.910
6.	Chittagong Polytechnic Institute	0.909
7.	National Forestory Research and Training Centre	1.365
8.	Manpower Planning in Pakistan	0.791
9.	Management Development Project in West Pakistan	1.452
10.	Pakistan Telecommunications Survey Project ..	0.571
11.	Strengthening of the Dacca Branch of the Survey of Pakistan	0.687
12.	Pre-investment Survey of Fisheries in East Pakistan	1.613
13.	Location and Planning of Cities in East Pakistan ..	1.001
14.	Development of Forest Research Institute, Chittagong	0.947
15.	Second Hydrological Survey in East Pakistan ..	1.111
16.	Pre-investment studies for the promotion of Fertilizer and Petro-Chemical Industries ..	1.580
17.	Soil Survey of Pakistan Phase II	0.838
	Total ..	21.22

ECAFE

ECAFE (the United Nations' Economic Commission for Asia and the Far East) has helped in the establishment of a regional railway operational and signalling centre at Walton (Lahore) where students from regional and also African countries come every year to receive technical training. The entire responsibility of operating this institute has been taken over by the Government of Pakistan since January, 1958

Since 1964 upto 1966, Pakistan availed of 17 training facilities in the field of Economic Development and Planning in the ECAFE's Asian Institute for Economic Development and Planning at Bangkok.

The total number of fellowships, training facilities and equipment received under UN programme were as shown in Table 46.

TABLE 46
ASSISTANCE RECEIVED UNDER UN PROGRAMME

Year		*Project costs in (US dollar)*	*No. of experts in field*	*No. of fellowships awards*	*Equipment supplies provided*
1950-51	..	268,322	—	33	—
1952	..	1,041,574	100	69	—
1953	..	945,001	109	49	—
1954	..	756,210	72	48	—
1955	..	929,083	79	55	—
1956	..	1,265,522	101	96	325,582
1957	..	1,026,285	96	56	140,295
1958	..	1,043,219	90	49	95,671
1959	..	870,000	80	48	14,187
1960	..	972,000	66	40	90,490
1961	..	784,000	61	49	40,882
1962	..	1,068,000	69	100	92,274
1963	..	734,000	58	49	9,385
1964	..	—	95	81	—
1965-66	..	2,431,025	(Final figures not yet available)		

CENTO

The UK and the USA have given assistance to improve and develop the communication systems of the member countries in the projects listed below:

1. Road link joining Karachi and Bunder Abbas (in Pakistan and Iran respectively) — £0.628 million (UK)
2. Microwave system between Karachi-Tehran-Ankara — $3.5 million (USA)
3. CENTO Airways — $1.75 million (USA)
4. High frequency radio tele-communication link between London & CENTO capitals — $0.65 million (UK)

The UK and the USA have also provided technical assistance for the following:

1. Field and laboratory equipment for soil-fertility centres in Pakistan — £40,000

2. Drugs and field equipment for parasitic diseases control demonstration projects.	about £5,000
3. Rinderpest vaccine production laboratory equipment.	unstated.
4. Equipment for the Institute of Animal Reproduction	unstated.

Advisory tours in CENTO region countries have been undertaken by technical experts from advanced countries to advise the regional member countries on modernisation of agriculture, expansion of trade, eradication of malaria, uses of applied nuclear energy, etc.

Pakistan has also received a number of training fellowships from Iran and Turkey under the MTCF programme.

SEATO

An important economic aspect approached on a multilateral basis through SEATO, is the shortage of skilled labour and the Cholera Research Laboratory.

Sponsorship of these projects in Pakistan are shared by Australia, Britain, Pakistan and the USA.

Ford Foundation

Upto June 1965, the Ford Foundation had provided assistance worth $19.23 million, all of which falls within the category of technical assistance. Aid during the Second Plan amounted to $10.75 million.

It has especially provided advisers for several Pakistani projects and institutions, and among them to the following: the Planning Commission, the Administrative College at Lahore, the Academies of Rural Development at Peshawar and Comilla, the Education Extension Centres at Lahore and Dacca, the Polytechnic Institutes at Karachi, Rawalpindi and Dacca, the Colleges of Home Economics at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca, the family planning schemes in Karachi, Lahore and Dacca, some small industries in East Pakistan, the Industrial Development Corporation.

The USA

The USA has also been giving technical assistance under the AID Programme. Requirements under this programme are determined in relation to the needs of various development projects which are accepted for financing. In the case of training, a programme is formulated while drawing up each project agreement. Technical training covers a variety of activities and personnel.

Under this programme, from 1951 to 1966, 2,985 participants have been sent abroad and during 1953 to 1966, 2,288 experts in various fields came to Pakistan. Pakistan received technical assistance and commodity aid worth $ 176,543,000.

Other Countries

Besides the regular programmes of technical Assistance, Pakistan has received facilities from a number of friendly countries on a

bilateral basis. Among them from the following:

Belgium: About 10 fellowships/scholarships a year for training in different technical fields.

France: About 65 fellowships/scholarships a year for higher training in different technical fields and also sometimes services of technical experts. Fellowships offered by France, except in certain fields are reserved for Government Departments and autonomous bodies. They are advertised through the Press and selection is made by a bi-national committee consisting of representatives of the Economic Affairs Division and the French Embassy.

Federal Republic of Germany: About 30 fellowships a year, and sometimes more for higher training in different technical fields as well as the services of a considerable number of technical experts. Fellowships offered by Germany are advertised and selection is made by a bi-national committee as in the case of France.

The Technical Institution at Dacca and Lahore and a Demonstration and Model Farm at Multan with a handicraft training centre, have been established with the assistance of the Federal Republic of Germany.

Italy: Ten fellowships a year.

Netherlands: Ten fellowships a year.

Sweden: Ten fellowships, and also the services of some experts.

Two technical institutes, one at Landhi and the other at Kaptai, have been set up and a third is being set up at Gujrat, with the assistance from Sweden.

Switzerland: A few fellowships for higher training every year.

Capital Assistance

Capital assistance, as distinct from commodity and technical assistance, has formed much the most substantial and vital part of the economic aid received by Pakistan. Several large and medium scale industrial and engineering projects owe much to this. The total of such aid received upto 1965-66 was $ 1,924.8 million dollars.

The USA

The USA has so far given development loans to the extent of $ 505 million. During 1965-66, loan agreements were signed for $ 15.70 million, meant for the Mangla Dam power lines, for purchase of 20 diesel locomotives, and for Sui gas compressors in the private sector.

The rates of interest on loans advanced by AID have been raised twice since it was set up. Now it is one per cent during the grace

period of ten years and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in the subsequent thirty years.

The Export and Import Bank of USA has advanced a number of loans in the Public and semi-Public sectors. Between July 1960 and June 1966, \$48 million were made available. These loans are for periods ranging between five to twenty years, and carry an interest of $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{3}{4}$ per cent.

Canada

Total assistance from Canada comes to \$ 189 million. It has mainly been in the form of grant under the Colombo Plan. Upto June 1964, the Assistance under the Consortium arrangement consisted of outright grants and export credits from the Export Credit Insurance Corporation of Canada. In July 1964, Canada announced soft loans, also called Special Development loans on IDA terms. These are repayable over 50 years at an interest rate of $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. Under an agreement signed in December 1965, Canada is to lend \$ 44 million to finance a nuclear power plant near Karachi, about half of it at $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent and the remainder at 6 per cent interest.

The UK

Upto 1965, total assistance from the UK was \$190 million, the bulk of it in the form of grants. The loans are repayable over 25 years and interest rates vary. For the second year of the Third Plan (1966-67) the UK has pledged \$ 22.4 million half of which is for projects and half for commodities and is interest free.

West Germany

Economic collaboration with Germany started in 1955. German assistance has mainly consisted of capital aid and export credits. The former is long-term and ranges from 20 to 25 years at 3 to $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent interest while export credits are at 6 per cent. Upto June, 1966, Germany had pledged under Capital aid \$ 182 million and under export credits \$112 million.

France

France has pledged \$65 million till June, 1966. All of this has consisted of export credits repayable over ten years at an interest rate of $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Italy

Aid from Italy began in 1962-63 and upto June 1966, it had pledged \$56 million.

The USSR

The USSR has till June, 1966 provided \$81 million worth of economic assistance, \$30 million at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and remainder at 3 per cent. \$30 million is for covering the cost of equipment and technicians etc. for oil exploration, while \$11 million is for agricultural machinery. Another \$50 million have been pledged for some fifty major projects during the Third Plan.

China

China has pledged financial assistance amounting to \$60 million for projects and commodities to be utilised upto March 1970. Against this pledge, commodities worth \$30 million are being imported

during 1965-66 and 1966-67. The balance of $30 million, is being utilised for a heavy machinery complex in East and West Pakistan and a number of other projects. The loan is interest free and repayable over a period of ten years from July 1975 to July 1985, through the export of Pakistani goods.

Poland & Czechoslovakia

Poland and Czechoslovakia have; upto June 1966, pledged $14 million each.

Sweden

Apart from assistance for technical education during the Second Plan period, Sweden provided, in 1965-66, a credit of $ 4.8 million to help finance the I.D.A. sponsored $25 million project for the storage and handling of foodgrains in East Pakistan.

Switzerland & Denmark

Switzerland and Denmark have till June 1966, made available export credits of $ 10 million each.

IBRD, IDA and IFC

During the Second Plan, the World Bank and its affiliate institution committed $341 million loan to Pakistan to finance its development projects. IDA gave $190 million credit, while IFC made investment involving foreign exchange expenditure of $10 million on four projects.

Japan

Upto June 1966, Japan had provided credits of $178 million. $ 135 million of it was extended by the Export and Import Bank of Japan to finance development projects in the Second and Third Plans. Three suppliers' credits for the balance of $43 million were made by the Japan Machinery Exporters Association to finance purchase of textile machinery from Japan. The repayment period on both Yen credits range from 15 to 18 years, while the Textile credits are repayable over a period of 10 years. Both types of credits carry an interest rate of 5¾ to 6 per cent. For the second year of the Third Plan Japan further pledged $30,000 credit.

Yugoslavia

Upto 30th June 1965, Yugoslavia had pledged four suppliers' credits amounting to $ 34 million, for the purchase of ships, installation of 2,000 tubewells in West Pakistan, and Industrial requirements in the private and public sectors. The terms are that 20 per cent of contract value is to be paid as down payment from Pakistan's own resources and the balance of 80 per cent is to be made from the credit, repayable over a period of eight years after delivery with interest rate at three per cent. Contracts with a credit component of $22 million had been concluded upto June 1966 with the Yugoslavian suppliers. In addition, Yugoslavia had pledged $ 40.8 million for 1965-66, for financing the construction of the Gomal-Dam project and rural electrification. The total economic assistance provided by Yugoslavia for economic development projects amounted to $74 million during the Second Five-Year Plan. She has further offered a $30 million for Pakistan's Third Plan.

Assistance

Most of Pakistan's needs have been met by assistance from the USA and Canada.

The US surplus agricultural commodities are received by Pakistan under bilateral agreements (under US legislation now generally referred to as PL480). These commodities include wheat, rice, cloth, cotton seed, soyabeen oil, tobacco and dairy products. During the period 1960-61 to 1964-65 the total allocation from the US and Canada was $649.53 million.

Debt Servicing Liability

At the beginning of the Second Plan in 1960 foreign loans contracted amounted to $ 542 million. Of these $328 million were repayable in foreign exchange. Upto the end of 1965 loans contracted amounted to $2,700 million. Of this $ 2,390 million were payable in foreign exchange. The loans actually disbursed by the end of 1965 were $1,762 million, of which $ 1,460 was paid in foreign exchange. Total loans repaid in foreign exchange upto that time amounted to $286 million; and $39 million in local currency.

With the increase in indebtedness, the debt servicing burden has risen as shown in Table 47.

TABLE 47
DEBT LIABILITY

$million

Year	Debt service liability
1960-61	$ 18.210
1961-62	$ 30.621
1962-63	$ 47.59
1963-64	$ 61.51
1964-65	$ 62.22

Debt servicing during the Second Plan was 7.87 per cent of the foreign exchange earnings in the same period. In the first year of the Third Plan it was 10.5 per cent of the foreign exchange earnings.

ASSISTANCE BY PAKISTAN

Pakistan has also offered some assistance to other countries, especially under the auspices of the Colombo Plan and the United Nations Organisation.

The number of trainees from the Colombo Plan countires upto 1965 amounted to 4,339.

Pakistan has also sent one expert to Ceylon and Malaysia respectively.

Colombo Plan

The assistance offered by Pakistan under the Colombo Plan comprised:

TABLE 48
COUNTRY-WISE ASSISTANCE UNDER COLOMBO PLAN

Country	Training Places 1950-64	Training Places 1964-65
Burma	33	..
Cambodia	4	..
Ceylon	12	..
Indonesia	38	..
Japan	3	..
Korea	6	1
Laos	1	..
Malaysia	39	3
Nepal	2	49
Philippines	12	..
Thailand	7	..
Vietnam	7	1
Total: ..	164 +	54 = 218

TABLE 49
FIELD OF ASSISTANCE

The training places provided in different fields of activities are as follows:

Field of Assistance	No.
Medical & Health	10
Education (including technical)	5
Engineering	1
Industries & Trade	2
Transport & Communication	180
Administration	17
Co-operatives	3
Total:	218

Technical expenditure on trainees and equipment provided by Pakistan was £ 72,029 and £8,818 respectively during 1950 to 1965. Besides these, Pakistan has also supplied books to Burma, cattle vaccine to Nepal and some equipment to Australia.

In 1965-66, new training places provided by Pakistan were five and the number of trainees 401.

Third Country Training in Pakistan

Pakistan has provided training opportunities to nationals of other countries in the field of agriculture, public administration and social, economic and community development. Upto April, 1965 some 156 trainees were received from 16 Asian and African countries.

Assistance to African countries

In 1961, Pakistan started a separate programme of technical assistance to African countries. A provision of Rs 150,000 was made for the purpose for 1961-62 and of Rs 250,000 for subsequent years. This assistance is provided in the shape of training facilities and expert advisory services.

So far Pakistan has provided assistance as shown in Table 50.

TABLE 50
ASSISTANCE TO AFRICAN COUNTRIES.

Country	*No. of training facilities.*	*Field of Assistance*	*Year*
Nigeria	10	Weaving	1961-62
	6	Co-operatives	1961-62
	1	Agriculture & Industry	1962-63
	3	Co-operatives	1963-64
	4	Co-operatives	1964-65
Ghana	..	One expert advisory service for jute industry	1961-62
	3	Jute technology	1963-64
	..	One expert advisory service for jute industry	1963-64
Sudan	1	Fellowship	1962-63
Somalia	..	One expert advisory service in ship inspection	1962-63
	1	Administration	1963-64
West Africa	..	One expert advisory service	

Assistance to Middle East and Gulf Sheikhdoms

Pakistan started a technical assistance programme for the Persian Gulf Sheikhdoms and Middle East countries during the year 1964-65.

The facilities afforded to these countries so far are as follows:

TABLE 51
ASSISTANCE TO MIDDLE EAST

Country	*No. of facilities.*	*Field of assistance*
Kuwait	11	Communications training.
Jordan	1	Advisory service on Jordan River project
Saudi Arabia	8	Steel re-rolling training.

UN Special Fund

As a member of the UN, Pakistan also contributes its share to the UN Special Fund.

Pakistan's contributions to the Extended Programme for Technical Assistance and to the Special Fund, beginning with $104,663 in 1950-51, were as follows foi 1958 onwards:

TABLE 52
PAKISTAN'S CONTRIBUTION TO UN SPECIAL FUND

figures in dollars

Year	*EPTA*	*Special Fund*	*Total contribution*
1958	170,000	..	170,000
1959	170,000	104,998	274,998
1960	170,000	129,998	299,998
1961	170,000	129,998	299,998
1962	200,000	250,000	450,000
1963	250,000	380,000	630,000
1964	250,000	380,000	630,000
1965	250,000	380,000	630,000
1966	250,000	500,000	750,000

ECAFE Programme

For the development of Mekong River Project under the auspices of ECAFE, Pakistan has given assistance in the form of Pakistani equipment and services to the value of $100,000.

Pakistan is also participating in the development of the Asian Highway under ECAFE which proposes to link the capitals of ECAFE countries. The road will cover both East and West Pakistan.

CENTO

Under the Central Treaty Organisation agreement technical assistance is not restricted from advanced members to the less developed members. The three neighbouring countries of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey have a technical programme to provide experts/training facilities for each other. For this purpose, a fund has been established and contributions are paid in local currency by Iran, Pakistan, Turkey, the UK and the USA in the ratio of 1:1:1:3:3 respectively. Pakistan contributes Rs 120,000 annually. Some Pakistani experts have been deputed to Iran and Turkey and have trained a number of their nationals in various fields.

Further co-operation among the three countries is being pursued under the Regional Co-operation for Development Agreement described under the next heading.

REGIONAL CO-OPERATION

The Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD)

The Regional Co-operation for Development was set up on July 21, 1964 by Iran, Pakistan and Turkey. The Heads of States of these three countries affirmed 'their belief that regional co-operation is an essential factor in acclerating the pace of national development and in contributing to peace and stability'. They went on to express 'their conviction that the strong cultural and historical ties which bind the peoples of their countries and have already provided them with a solid basis for collaboration should be strengthened further and developed for the common benefit of the peoples of the entire region'. They outlined the principal fields in which such collaboration could be set in motion right away, agreeing in principle:

1. to free movement of goods through all practical means, such as the conclusion of trade agreements;
2. to establish closer collaboration among existing Chambers of Commerce, and eventually set up a joint Chamber of Commerce;
3. to the formulation and implementation of joint projects;
4. to reduce the postal rates between the three countries to the level of internal rates;
5. to improve air transport services within the region and eventually establishing a strong and competitive international air lines for the three countries;
6. to investigate the possibilities of securing close co-operation in the field of shipping including the establishment of a joint maritime line or "conference" arrangements;
7. to undertake necessary studies for construction and improvement of rail and road links;
8. to reach at an early date an agreement designed to promote tourism among the three countries;
9. to abolish visa formalities for mutual travel purposes;
10. to provide technical assistance to each other in the form of experts and training facilities.

They proposed that the possibilities for greater co-operation in the cultural field also be fully explored.

The organisation now has its headquarters with a permanent secretariat at Tehran. The secretariat provides necessary services and ensures proper co ordination in respect of the work of specialists from the three countries. A Ministrial Council and a Regional Planning Council were also set up, assisted by various committees in different fields, such as roads and railways, posts, telegraphs and telecommunications, shipping and air-transportation, banking and insurance, joint purpose enterprises, technical co-operation and administration, trade and tourism.

The next paragraphs outline the main features of work done during the first two years of RCD's life.

Transportation

The airlines of the RCD countries are intensifying their co-operation in the field by such stages as appointing each other as general sales agents in their respective countries; pooling traffic for the region; exchanging information before purchasing new air-craft; co-ordinating time tables of their respective air services; naming PIA (Pakistan International Airlines), Iran Air and Turkish Airlines services linking Karachi, Tehran and Istanbul as RCD service; standardising rules and regulations; and exchanging trainees. Iran Air and PIA started operating their jet services through Istanbul in October, 1966. Progress is also being made towards the establishment of joint Airline. A sub-committee has been set up to study the International traffic growth of the three countries with a view to considering the feasibility of purchasing of supersonic transport or sub-sonic jets for joint operation by the three airlines and also for specifying routes on which this joint operation would be feasible.

One of the concrete achievements in *shipping* has been the establishment of a joint Shipping Conference. The statute of the Conference has been adopted and the Conference is known as RCD Shipping Services. Iran's share entitlement in the Conference is 15 per cent, Pakistan's 50 per cent and Turkey's 35 per cent. The Conference will operate between the United States and the RCD region. The headquarters of the Conference has been established at Istanbul.

The RCD Shipping Service has started operating on the intra-regional routes from May, 1966; it has one West-bound sailing a month; on the East-bound route the service has been rather limited but it is hoped that it would become more frequent and regular after the establishment of a trade pattern.

Priority has been given to *Roads and Railways* projects designed to link the three countries. Work is in progress on the road-links and will be completed by 1968.

The total length of the rail link between Iran and Turkey in the Iranian side is nearly 125 miles of which construction of the substructure of the first 44 miles (from Sharaf Khaneh towards the Turkish

border) has already been completed and some 25 miles of the remaining part is near completion and ready for track laying. The last 19 miles located in a very mountainous area are 40 per cent completed. A huge bridge about 493 yards long 129 yards high which is needed for valley crossing is being designed and its construction will be started shortly.

On the Turkish side also, considerable progress has been made in the construction of Ferry landings on both sides of lake Van and the construction of the rail line from Qotur to lake Van.

Regarding the rail link between Iran and Pakistan, linking Kasham-Bad-Yazd, Kerman and Zahidan, the sub-structure has been completed upto Yazd. The rail link upto Kerman will be completed by 1973. Another section from Bad to Isfahan and about 37 miles beyond towards the south-west, connecting the proposed Steel plant, is expected to be completed by 1971.

The existing rail link between Pakistan and Iran, *i.e.*, from Quetta to Zahidan has not been operated for passenger traffic for the last one year. The Government of Iran is reviewing the position and will take measures for early resumption of traffic on it.

Communications

Surface postage rates of letter mail of all categories have been reduced to the levels of internal rates within the respective countries. Then different places on the Iran-Turkey border and the Iran-Pakistan border have been specified for opening post, telegraph and telecommunications offices. Air surcharges on letter mail will be reduced to the internal level by the three countries if a joint airline starts operating.

Insurance facilities for all categories of mail transmitted through Iran have been made available from December 1, 1966. Although the postal services have been generally satisfactory, additional air services for mail transport have been made available to improve the mail service within the region.

Pakistan has opened Post and Telegraphs offices at Ladgasht and Jeewani in addition to Kohi-Taftan, and Iran has set up two Post and Telegraph offices, at Katur and Soroo on the Turkish border, which are to be commissioned shortly. Turkey has already established a Post and Telegraph office at Bajirge, which is in service. Another office at Kapikey is to be set up when the rail link between Iran and Turkey is established.

Iran plans to utilise the sea route also from Khorramshahr to Karachi for sending parcel mails, if it would mean speedier transit. She has requested the Pakistani administration to furnish them the sailing schedules of Pakistan ships.

Necessary engineering tests for Manual Telex service between Ankara and Karachi were made, and the results were satisfactory. Accordingly this circuit was opened for commercial use. The calls from Karachi are extended to Istanbul via Ankara.

Close liaison will be maintained between the post, telegraph

and telecommunications administrations of the three countries to facilitate introduction of automatic trunk dialing between Karachi-Islamabad-Tehran-Ankara. One circuit is being provided on experimental basis between Karachi-Ankara, Karachi-Tehran and Tehran-Ankara with normal operating trunk dialing facilities.

Tourism

An agreement on tourism and another for the mutual abolition of visas for travel purposes of the nationals have been signed. A number of recommendations for promoting tourism amongst the three countries, such as simplification of travel documents, youth tourism, general validation of driving licence of any country and close liaison among travel agents of RCD countries, are being considered.

Banking & Insurance

The RCD Insurance Centre has been in operation at Karachi since July, 1965. An RCD Insurance Manual is under preparation. Three regional reinsurance Pools, comprising (i) Marine (Hull & Cargo), to be managed by Pakistan, (ii) Fire, to be managed by Turkey, and (iii) Accident, to be managed by Iran, have been formally inaugurated in the three countries and they are accepting business from January 1, 1967. These pools will get business not only from within the region but also from outside. This will result in foreign exchange saving as well as earnings for each country.

With a view to exploring further ideas of RCD collaboration in the field of banking, a Seminar on Banking is being arranged in the spring of 1967.

Technical Co-operation & Public Administration

Programmes of technical co-operation, apart from their obvious usefulness, promote understanding among co-operating partners. A general agreement for the administration of the technical assistance programme under the aegis of RCD has been approved. Under the programme six seminars, two publications and a number of training facilities have so far been provided.

A comprehensive technical co-operation programme for 1966 provided for: training of 50 Irani, 50 Pakistani and 41 Turkish nationals; deputation of six experts by Iran, nine by Pakistan and eight by Turkey; conducting of seven seminars in the three member countries; and publication of papers prepared for the seminars. Five of the seminars were held during the year.

Family Planning was identified as another field of co-operation under the aegis of RCD.

Similarly technical co-operation programme for 1967 provides for the training of 113 Iranians, 87 Pakistani and 51 Turks, deputation of 6 experts by Iran, 14 by Pakistan and 9 by Turkey; conducting of eight seminars in the member countries; and publication of papers read at the seminars.

The first joint training course on organization of public administration and management on joint participation basis is being organised in the first week of October, 1967, by Pakistan for five weeks

duration. A study tour of about a week at the Pakistan Administrative Staff College, Lahore, is included. Lectures and group discussions will then be conducted.

Joint Industrial Enterprises

Twenty-eight industries have been identified as offering joint venture possibilities.

Three projects, aluminium, and carbon black in Iran and bank note paper in Pakistan, have been approved for implementation. The details of the working arrangements for these projects are under negotiation. Studies on pulp and paper, locomotives, motor vehicles, including commercial vehicles, sugar, electrical machinery and equipment, electronics, machine tools, drugs and pharmaceuticals, and dye stuffs and chemicals have been completed or nearing completion.

The three countries undertook detailed studies on various petrochemical industries on a regional basis. These studies revealed the possibilities of setting up ventures in one country based on the market of the region as a whole. It has been decided that long term agreement in respect of petrochemical industries, which are to be developed as joint purpose enterprises, be negotiated.

Arrangements have been made for supply of various petrochemicals by each country to the other two.

Iran has taken the preliminary necessary steps for the construction of petrol filling stations in the Turkish border areas, and would give consideration to the provision of the same facilities in the border areas adjacent to Pakistan. Iran will commission a filling station in Bazargan before the end of 1967.

Common training programmes in the field of standardization are also being introduced.

Laws and opportunities for foreign investment in the three member countries have been reviewed and a number of suggestions of intra-regional investment have been made.

Joint ventures for the exploration, exploitation and refining of oil, are under consideration.

Trade

Much progress has been made in the field of trade. The RCD Chamber of Commerce and Industry has been established. Bilateral trade agreements have been signed between Pakistan and Turkey, and Iran and Pakistan. Trade between the three countries during the past two years has shown a healthy upward trend and the increase in intra-regional trade during the coming years should be even larger.

Establishment of a Payments Union will facilitate the movement of intra-regional trade by making available additional foreign exchange in the form of credits for financing imports from the RCD region and in this way, act as a positive factor in promoting intra-regional trade. The Payments Union could also facilitate the exchange of goods by the tripartite nature of its clearing operations. RCD Payments Union would be simple to operate and through it the availabilities of resources would be sufficient to finance not only the existing volume of trade

but the substantially increased trade anticipated in the coming years.

Steps are being taken to organize fairs and exhibitions and establish common Show Rooms etc., for accelerating the trade in the Region.

Each country will circulate information regarding impending tenders with a view to increasing purchases within the region.

Cultural Co-operation

A Regional Cultural Institute has been set up at Teheran for carrying out systematic research in common historical and cultural heritage of the countries of the region. There are branches in Turkey and Pakistan. The government body of the Institute has prepared a detailed programme.

A book dealing with the history, culture and civilisation of Iran, Pakistan and Turkey is planned in the near future. Preparation of a book on common social customs will be taken in hand after a preliminary survey is completed by nominated scholars from each country.

The Istanbul Branch of the Regional Cultural Institute keeps in close touch with scholars, organises meetings such as that of historians in July 1966, the RCD Seminar on the common cultural heritage, in Ankara in November 1966.

Steps are being taken by the Institute to co-ordinate thework of revision now in progress in the three countries for elimination of misleading interpretations of history in school books and an introduction of additional material in such books for the promotion of greater understanding amongst the peoples of the region.

Exchange Programme are drawn up every year. That for 1966 was full implemented and for 1967 it proceeds very well.

Also organized were joint cultural delegations, and sport tournaments. Arrangements are also being made for making records of literary classics of the three countries and for disseminating the work of eminent poets, educationists and scientists of the regions.

Iran was producing records of 'Masnavi' and offered to present 250 sets each to Pakistan and Turkey for free distribution to institutions and individuals.

A colloquium on the reappraisal of the meaning and importance of the common cultural heritage was held in Tehran in March 1965; another on common problems of education and social welfare was held at Istanbul in May 1965, and a third on common problems of economic growth was held in Karachi in June, 1965.

Information

Measures have been recommended for some form of co-operation among information media. These include agreements on exchange of news between the three national news agencies, and exchange of news-reels and documentaries. A joint documentary film is being produced which will project the cultural and social heritage of the three countries. Dubbing of feature films, and co-operation on matters relating to trade, tourism and information among the foreign mis-

sions of the three countries are envisaged. Exchange of news films and documentaries is also arranged. The RCD Secretariat has started a periodical magazine and a bulletin.

Women Co-operation

Co-operation amongst the women of RCD countries is another field which is under consideation of the three member countries.

A seminar on the status of women was held in Iran from May 21-25, 1967. The Seminar covered social, economic and political rights of women in the RCD region, reforms introduced or contemplated in regard to the laws relating to the status of women, mobilization of women's organisations in the region, role of women in the community development programmes, and in social and economic development through vocational and technical education, family planning and technical assistance for advancement of women.

Exchange of visits by women delegations is planned to foster better understanding and appreciation of one another's problems and needs and, promote a regional approach towards common problems of women in the region.

Indonesia-Pakistan Economic & Cultural Co-operation (IPECC)

An RCD style agreement was reached with Indonesia in 1964. It is to have a secretariat located at Jakarta, and headed by a secretary-General and a deputy. The Economic Council of the IPECC has been reviewing fields in which co-operation is possible. In September 1966, the second session of the technical committee of this organisation was held, and it discovered a tremendous potential for co-operation between the two countries. As under RCD they indentified several ways in which it could be started immediately as follows: trade, joint industrial ventures, shipping, post, telegraph and telecommunication, technical co-operation, insurance, information, cultural matters.

Specific steps have been suggested for fruitful co-operation in all of them. The recommendations were put before the Economic Council of the IPECC which has approved them and further action is under way. The Council of Ministers (attended by the foreign ministers of the two countries) has also since met.

At the committee meetings Pakistan offered Indonesia

- a credit loan of 5 million dollars for purchase of jute goods, cambrics, cotton textiles;
- rescheduling of the repayment of 10 million dollar loan already provided in 1965 for a further period of three years; and
- setting up of a jute mill in Indonesia.

The Trade Committee recommended that the validity of the agreement signed in March 1965 for the exchange of commodities of the two countries of the value of 14 million dollars be extended to June 1967.

In the cultural field there has been exchange of a number of delegations between the two countries. The Cultural Committee recom-

mended other measures also, including establishment of cultural centres in the two countries and chairs in universities for Indonesian and Pakistani studies.

The Second Session of the Economic Council of the Indonesia Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation Organisation held at Dacca on December 3-5, 1966, recommended some structural changes for the purpose of effective and better working and management. Three committees on cultural co-operation, technical co-operation and information media were amalgamated into one known as Committee on Technical and Cultural Co-operation and Information Media.

The technical co-operation programme for 1965 could not be implemented due to political conditions in Indonesia. The programme for 1967-68 has been finalised. It provides for training of 12 Indonesians and 2 Pakistanis for periods varying from six months to one year and supply of 12 pairs of Sapi Bali Cattle by Indonesia to Pakistan for experimental breeding in East Pakistan.

15. EDUCATION

Education in Pakistan, as in most developing countries of Asia and Africa, is in its growing stage. Less than 14½ million out of an estimated population of 105 million (about 17 per cent) are literate. Of these, more than half have not gone beyond the primary stage of education.

The problem Pakistan faces is both quantitative and qualitative. On the one hand, for education opportunities have to be extended to all the children of the hundred thousand villages as well as in the towns: on the other, and simultaneously, it has to be ensured that increasing number of highly trained people is available to carry on the professional tasks of a modern society—as teachers, doctors, engineers, scientists, and lawyers. The educationists and development planners of the country have been trying to find an answer to this dual need.

ADMINISTRATION

Education is a provincial subject: in other words, the constitutional responsibility for maintenance and development of educational facilities rests with the two provinces.* The Education Department

*Educational institutions in the centrally administered areas of Dacca and Islamabad are the direct responsibility of the Central Ministry of Education.

in the provincial secretariat defrays this responsibility through several directorates of general and technical education, and boards.

In East Pakistan, there are two directorates: the Directorate of Education and the Directorate of Technical Education. In West Pakistan, because of its bigger size, there are eight Regional Directorates of Education, two of which are on the technical side. The Director of a Directorate of Education administers schools through divisional and district inspectors and inspectresses, and colleges directly. The technical institutes are administered by the Directors of Technical Education.

The Boards include: the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education (four in each province), the Board of Technical Education (one in each province), and the Madrassah Education Board (one in the Eastern province). These Boards lay down curriculum for, and conduct public examinations of, classes under their respective jurisdiction, prescribe qualifications for the teaching staff and space and equipment standards for institutions.

The preparation of syllabi and conducting public examinations of classes I to VIII are the responsibility of Education Directorates; of classes IX and X of the Secondary Board; and beyond XII of Universities, which are autonomous bodies. Although autonomous the Universities are maintained largely by public funds in the shape of annual grants-in-aid from the central and provincial exchequers.

The role of the Central Government (through the Ministry of Education) is to co-ordinate education policies, and to stimulate planning for educational development on a national basis. It is assisted in this task by the following bodies:

(*a*) *The Inter-University Board*, comprising the vice-chancellor and two other members from each university concerned with higher education; and

(*b*) *The Council of Technical Education*, an ad hoc body, advising on aspects of technical education.

Expenditure

In 1947 expenditure on education was less than one per cent of the gross national product. In the next 10 years it reached only 1.2 per cent. By 1964 the figure was 2.6 per cent.* The aim now is to take it as quickly as possible to the level set for developing countries by an international education conference (4.6 per cent†). The expenditure has risen three times between 1958-59 and 1964-65 (from Rs 250 million to Rs 730 million); and the latter figure is expected to be trebled by 1970.

The First Five-Year Plan allocated Rs 460 million to education, the Second Plan Rs 1,050 million, and the Third Plan Rs 2,378.283 million. Education's share in the annual budget has approximately

*This percentage does not include expenditure on health education, labour training, etc. The all-inclusive expenditure roughly comes to 7 per cent of the GNP

†This was a conference of Asian countries held at Karachi in 1960.

been doubled over this period. To raise the investment further in the public sector additional funds are generated through special local cesses.

The per capita public expenditure has risen from Rs 3 in 1960-61 to almost Rs 10 in 1965-66.

TABLE 53
THIRD PLAN ALLOCATION TO EDUCATION

Million rupees

Sub-Sector	East Pakistan	West Pakistan	Central Government	Total
Elementary Education:				
a) Primary	250	69	—	319
b) Middle/Junior High/Secondary Education	260	297	—	557
Teacher Education	45	36	—	81
Technical Education	357	259	—	616
Colleges	51	65	—	116*
Universities	150	92	37	279
Scholarships	66	91	11	168
Madrassah Education	14	—	—	14
Social and Cultural activities	9	2	43	54
Special Projects	26	10	—	36
Special Areas	—	21	9	30
Training in Public Administration	10	1	9	20
Publicity Schemes	—	—	10	10
Provision for Implementing Hamoodur Rahman Commission Report	—	50	—	50
Central Government Educational Institutes at Islamabad, Dacca, Rawalpindi	—	—	27	27
Establishment Division	—	—	2	2
	1,238	993	148	2,378
Private Sector	200	100	—	300
Grand Total:—	1,438	1,093	148	2,678

*This figure does not include expenditure on Intermediate Colleges.

SCHOOLS
Primary Schools

Universal and free primary education is a constitutional right. The 1961 population census recorded that in the primary school going ages (5 to 9 years), literacy was 10.7 per cent, much lower than the total literacy of Pakistan, 19.2 per cent. However, since then the situation has been changing rapidly. The child population is now about 16½ million. Of this over 7 million go to 62,000 schools in the country. The number of schools and the enrolment in them has been increasing rapidly, the annual rate being 4,000 and 400,000 respectively. Between 1960 and 1965 two million additional pupils were brought under instruction. By 1970 the percentage of child population at school from classes I to V is to reach 70 per cent,

of the total child population; by 1985 it will be 100 per cent upto class VIII.

Compulsory primary education is to be introduced by 1975. The compulsion will at first be for the first five years of education, and then extended to eight years.

No fee is charged at primary schools run by Government or local bodies.

Most primary schools are run by the government with over 90 per cent of total enrolment. Many schools, run by private institutions or associations also receive substantial grants and other help from government. There are some fully independent institutions which meet their costs from donations and a comparatively higher rate of tuition fees.

Primary Curriculum

The curriculum for the primary classes has been designed with a view to making it both self-contained for the majority who drop out after this stage, and preparatory for those who go further on. The curriculum includes besides the teaching of the three R's, social studies and elementary science, art work, crafts, manual labour, and such other activities as help develop fundamental skills. Religion is a compulsory subject throughout in view of the fact that 'Religion has been the most vital civilising force in the history of mankind. It broadens sympathies, inculcates a spirit of tolerance, self-sacrifice and social service, and removes artificial distinction of caste and colour between man and man'.

Secondary Schools

Secondary tuition is given in the next five-year period of education, sometimes subdivided as to middle school (3 year) and high school (2 year) education. The age group here is 10-14 plus. The 1961 Census showed the highest literacy percentage in this group—30.7. At present not more than 20 per cent of the children attending primary schools go on to the secondary stage. This nevertheless is a big advance since 1947-48 when the figure was only 10 per cent and the position is further improving. Between 1960 and 1965, the increase in enrolment was about 108 per cent: the total figure of 2½ million, increasing at the rate of 200,000 annually. There has been a great expansion in the number of schools also, at the rate of more than one new school a day. The institutions run by government and local bodies maintain lead upto the middle level, with well over 70 per cent of the total enrolment, but at the high school level, the private sector is ahead with nearly 65 per cent of the total enrolment.

Types of School

The secondary schools generally conform to an established pattern providing instructions in more or less the same set of subjects and roughly upto the same level throughout the country. There are, however, some variations in types.

Pilot schools are those selected schools where the new reformed curriculum, with diversified course and new techniques of education,

has been put into effect both for experimentation and demonstration.

Public schools are residential institutions run on the lines of English schools of this kind. Mainly, military schools and colleges are of this type. These include pre-cadet colleges at Hasan Abdal, Petaro, Kohat, Faujdarhat (Chittagong), Mymensingh, Jessore, Sardah (Rajshahi), the PAF schools at Sargodha and Lower Topa, the military college at Jhelum, and the Sadiq Public School at Bahawalpur. They select boys after competitive tests and interviews and the boys enrolled are generally provided with boarding, lodging, books and other facilities.

European schools are run chiefly by Christian missionaries. They are located in the bigger cities such as Karachi, Lahore, Rawalpindi, Dacca, Chittagong and Comilla. Others are at such hill stations as Murree, Abbottabad and Quetta.

Comprehensive high schools with limited residential facilities are being opened where students would be selected on the basis of ability, staff members would be of higher status and qualifications than normally and the standard of instructions would be of a high level. Forty such schools, including ten for girls, are being opened in West Pakistan.

There is one *residential school* at Dacca in East Pakistan, and six more at Barisal, Comilla, Sylhet, Mymensingh, Pabna and Rangpur are being set up during the current Five-Year Plan period.

Vocational schools provide instructions for some vocation. The industrial homes for girls fall in this category. There are a few such in both the wings, and more are to be set up.

There are other institutions, such as the *reformatory schools* for delinquents, which offer vocational training, and *special schools* for handicapped boys.

Secondary Curriculum

The curriculum of secondary, like the primary, education was revised in 1960 with a view to correcting the tendency towards formal and mechanical education, and relating it rather to practical requirements on the one hand, and moral and spiritual needs on the other. For those, specially in suburban and rural areas, who have pursued their studies beyond the primary level, secondary education is quite often the terminal stage. With this in mind, not only is science teaching made compulsory throughout the period, but also new courses, such as agriculture, commerce, industrial art, home economics and other pre-vocational disciplines have been introduced to equip them according to their ability, aptitude or personal requirements. The syllabi have been devised and new text books prepared not only to meet the need of those students who might end their education here, but also for those for whom it is a preparatory stage for higher education. The study of religion is compulsory throughout this stage.

COLLEGES

Intermediate Education

The stage designated in most other countries as higher secondary has been known here as 'intermediate', because it is treated as intermediate between secondary and university education. Thus it

assumes the role of a starting point for higher education rather than, as in other countries, the concluding part of a secondary education.

There are over 170 intermediate colleges* attended by about 50,000 students. Degree colleges also have intermediate sections attached to them under the general administration of the Principals of the colleges. The public examination of the intermediate or higher secondary is conducted by the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education.

Degree Colleges

Degree Colleges† are affiliated to universities, and prepare students for their graduation courses.

There are about 200 degree colleges with an enrolment of nearly 200,000. The expansion at this level has been slower than at the primary and secondary levels, but the present number is more or less adequate. These colleges provide more than 90 per cent of the country's annual out turn of graduates.

Normally, the degree colleges are not allowed to do post-graduate teaching. A few old colleges have, however, been so permitted, and there is now a scheme in the western Wing to allow this generally on a phased basis, since the setting up of new universities to meet growing requirements would be expensive and time-consuming.

Graduation has acquired a consummative status. Considered a sufficient qualification for all 'white collar' jobs, it has, since the days of British rule been the high point of formal education. A boy (or girl) has been considered, for all practical purposes, to have completed his education with graduation. This attitude is, however, changing. A Master's degree is now more commonly considered the normal level of higher education.

According to the 1961 census the number of graduates was then over 82,000 or 0.6 per cent of the population. Those who had gone beyond that stage numbered nearly 31,500 or 0.2 per cent of the population. In 1966, 21,433 young men and women took their degrees.

Management

Over 65 per cent of the degree colleges are private-owned, most of them receiving grants-in-aid from Government. Enrolment in these institutions ranges between a few hundred to a few thousand. The governing bodies of the colleges are formed in accordance with University regulations. The Commissioner or the Deputy Commissioner or their nominee is the Chairman. There are also other government nominees.

To prevent 'commercialisation' of education by the private sector it is proposed to regulate their working in various ways, including the introduction of official supervision where it does

*Also known as Higher Secondary Schools.

†There are also non-degree colleges, that is those which have provision only for intermediate level teaching.

not exist. The recent Commission on Students Problems and Welfare* recommended certain measures, including the following:

- Grants-in-aid to be made on uniform principles and calculated on the basis of approved items of expenditure.
- Affiliation to universities to be made contingent upon, firstly, their having governing bodies with an official chairman (Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner or his nominee) and other representatives of the Government, the university and the guardians; and, secondly, their providing standard conditions of service for the staff.
- A Committee of elected members (from amongst college principals) and headed by the local Director of Education to advise on grants-in-aid, and also to act as the appellate body against decisions of the governing body of any college.

UNIVERSITIES

Starting with two established universities, and a third just four months old, Pakistan now has twelve universities and a thirteenth is soon to open. In order of establishment they are: the Universities of Punjab at Lahore (1882), Dacca (1921), Sind, at Hyderabad (1947), Peshawar (1950), Karachi (1951), Rajshahi (1953), the Agricultural Universities at Mymensingh and Lyallpur, and Engineering and Technological Universities at Dacca and Lahore (all four, 1961), Islamabad (1966) and Chittagong (1966). The thirteenth is to be set up in Jahangirnagar, in Dacca. The total enrolment in these universities is over 20,000. With the establishment of the four scientific universities the total enrolment in scientific disciplines rose from 2,000 in 1958 to over 4,000 in 1964-65. In 1965, 5,569 students took degrees from those universities that were then functioning, 4,105 in the humanities and 1,464 in the sciences.

All the universities are teaching and affiliating institutions, and they also prescribe degree courses and conduct examinations**. The jurisdiction of each is laid down in the act constituting it, with subsequent amendments when necessary. For instance, Dacca University was, until 1947, a purely residential teaching university, with a prescribed jurisdiction of five miles radius from its convocation hall. After Independence the Act was amended to extend its jurisdiction to the whole of the province and to make it an affiliating University as well. Later, Rajshahi University, and now Chittagong University, have been added to divide the burden.

Constitution

Almost an identical pattern of authority and internal relationship exists in all universities. The provincial governors are the ex-officio chancellors of all the universities in their respective provinces. The vice-chancellor appointed by the chancellor, normally for a four year term, extendable, is the chief officer for both the academic and administrative purposes. He is assisted in the latter

*Set up in 1964. See page 427.

**University of Islamabad is not, however, an affiliating body.

by a registrar, a treasurer, and a controller of examinations. The supreme administrative and financial authority is the syndicate consisting of the vice-chancellor, representatives of the provincial education department, some of the senior professors of the university, principals of the important affiliated colleges, and a few nominees of the chancellor. The syndicate is assisted by various specialised bodies such as the academic council, the faculties, the boards of studies, the selection board (for appointment of staff), the committee for advanced studies and research, the finance committee, and the planning and development committee.

There is also an inter-university board, a body of the vice-chancellors of all the universities meant chiefly to obtain uniformity and a high academic standard and to perform co-ordinative and corporate functions.

Finances

Government meets upto 70 per cent of the expenditure of each university. The expenditure has been rising rapidly in recent years. During 1964-65 the total government expenditure in university grants was Rs 126 million. This was 25 per cent more than in the preceding year. Almost all the universities have recently been building their new campuses, over more or less 1,000 acres each. This has boosted their expenditure. The Third Plan has had to provide over Rs 200 million for construction works alone in eight of these universities.

Studies

While affiliated colleges cater mostly for the simple graduation course,* the universities do the post-graduate teaching, almost exclusively. In the general universities there are often seven faculties and upto 25 departments. All of these provide courses in the arts, social sciences, physical sciences and medicine. More specialised fields are now appearing—such as a five-year course in architecture, a post-graduate diploma in demography, a master's degree in social science, in town planning and so on. Most of the universities also offer higher research degrees, such as Ph.D., Ll.D., D. Litt., D.Sc. and D.L.O.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

As development activities gathered pace after independence, increasing emphasis had had to be placed on education and training for various professions at different levels. Special schools, colleges and universities have been opened to meet the increasing demand for trained personnel in agriculture, engineering and technology, medicine, law, education, business and public administration, and social welfare.

Agriculture

Agriculture still being the country's basic industry, providing a livelihood for an overwhelming number of the population, there has been pressing need for specially trained people in various branches. There are now four agricultural schools and five colleges producing every year 12,600 trained men and women. In 1961, two full-fledged

*Some of them also offer Honours Courses.

universities were also set up, one in each province. They provide higher education and research in agriculture, veterinary science, animal husbandry, agricultural economics, agricultural engineering and technology, fisheries, forestry and other subjects having a bearing on rural economy. They also provide training in extension and organisational methods. The East wing university has arrangements for pre-service and in-service training and extension courses, as well as for refresher courses and short courses. The West wing university offers a Master's Degree in some 24 subjects and a Doctorate in twenty. There are also 73 short courses of one week to two years in nearly all subjects. Normally, a short course is meant for training auxiliary workers capable of acting as sub-professional assistants to graduates. The extension work is designed to examine farm problems in co-operation with the farming community. The recent enrolment figures were 1,300 for regular and 350 for short courses in the West Pakistan University, and a total of 970 in the East Pakistan University, and the intake is increasing rapidly.

Most of the students come from the agrarian community and some 60 per cent of them receive state assistance for their studies.

Engineering and Technology

With hardly any arrangement for technical education at the time of independence, the position now, is different. Apart from the clear bias in favour of scientific knowledge in all early education, there have been set up special technical schools and colleges, and, since 1961, two well-equipped universities, one in each province.

In East Pakistan there are six polytechnics, and 13 technical institutes already established are to be upgraded into polytechnics. In addition, two new polytechnics are being established during the current Five-Year Plan period. The western province has fourteen polytechnics, and seven more are under construction. By 1970 there will be 13 more, two of them exclusively for women. In view of the country's needs, arrangements are being made in the existing institutions to have double shifts so as to provide 14,000 places by 1970. Some of the polytechnics are endeavouring to widen their programme by adding more technologies; at present many of them have eight. There are proposals for establishing training colleges for polytechnic teachers and also colleges for advanced science technology.

In addition to the polytechnics there are over 100 smaller technical, industrial and vocational institutes for training pre-matriculates for the jobs of skilled workmen. These institutes between them have a total enrolment capacity of about 6,000 boys. Some of these, as noted, are being developed into polytechnics. Vocational institutions for girls are also proposed to be established.

At the higher level, the two engineering universities and six colleges between them have over 1,700 students on the roll. It is proposed to have two more colleges shortly at Khulna and Chittagong in East Pakistan.

Medicine

Starting from only four medical colleges at independence Pakistan now has twelve of them producing over 1,000 doctors a year. The total number of doctors produced until 1965 was 13,000. The figure is expected to rise to 20,000 by 1970. Almost all the colleges have a hospital attached to them where clinical training is given.

In addition to these colleges, there is a post-graduate medical centre at Karachi. Arrangements also exist for research facilities at King Edward's Medical College at Lahore. A College of Surgery and Hygiene, on the pattern of the British Royal College, has been established for examining post-graduate students in clinical subjects. There is a scheme for setting up of a school of tropical medicine in Dacca for training qualified doctors in recent advances in medicine, and carrying out research in medical and public health problems. There is also a Medical Research Council which has at present over 50 research schemes in hand. Other research and experimenting institutions include the National Health Laboratory, to be set up at Islamabad to carry out research into public health problems; a medical research unit in the Institute of Hygiene at Lahore; and a Cholera Research Laboratory in Dacca.

In addition to these, there are ten colleges for Homeopathic treatment. An Institute of Health and Tibbi Research has also recently been founded in Karachi.

Nursing education facilities have also greatly expanded. There are 30 nursing schools in large hospitals where entrants are given a three-year qualifying course. Further courses are provided for nursing teachers and administrators by the colleges of nursing. The number of nurses has increased ten times in 18 years, from 400 in 1947 to 4,000 in 1965.

Commerce and Administration

There is provision for under-graduate and post-graduate education in commercial subjects in almost all universities. In addition, there are a number of privately run commercial institutions, mostly for clerical and secretarial training. There are post-matriculation commercial centres run by the education departments. At secondary schools there is provision for choosing some commerce subjects in classes IX and X.

There are 22 government run commercial institutes in West Pakistan, and 25 more are to be built by 1970. They offer one-year certificate course and a two-year diploma course. In East Pakistan the polytechnics provide commercial classes in their second shifts.

Karachi University has an Institute of Business Administration which offers a five-year master's evening course, a two-year diploma course, and a certificate course. This institute is associated with the University of South California, and its projects are co-sponsored by Governments of Pakistan and the USA. There is a similar post-graduate institute at Dacca.

Law

Apart from the university colleges of Peshawar and Lahore and

the Rajshahi Department of Law, there are five law colleges affiliated to Sind university, three to Karachi university and five to Dacca university, where law is taught in evening classes. The LL.B. (Bachelor of laws) is a post-graduate degree, and the two years course has been made uniform throughout the country.

Both Education Commissions (See page 427) thought that there was need for considerable reorganisation of legal education and doubted if academic and formal education were sufficient equipment for professional purposes. In this connection the British and American practice were cited. The Bar Council is empowered to set up a standing committee for legal education in respect of which it is required to act in consultation with the University and the Provincial Bar Councils.

Teachers

Considerable attention has been paid to the proper training of school teachers. There are over 100 teachers' training schools with 14,800 trainees on the roll. Another 13,500 trainees attend certificate courses for teaching primary and middle schools. Among training colleges there were 16 in 1964-65 with over 3,000 students. They offer courses of one or two years for primary and secondary teachers. There are 15 higher training institutions, including two for education and research at Dacca and Lahore and two departments of education in the Universities of Peshawar and Sind. The Institute of Education and Research at Dacca offers two courses for Master's degree in education. There are, in addition, two other institutions for the instruction of teachers in training schools and inspectors of the primary schools. Physical education is a part of the secondary schools curriculum. There are two colleges for training over 300 teachers for this purpose.

A series of in-service refresher courses have also been organised to re-orientate teachers in view of new techniques and new subjects arising from curriculum reforms. These courses are organised not only by the training institutions themselves but also by the newly set up education extension centres. As a complement of the extension centres, a number of pilot schools have been set up in each province to be a model of new teaching method and approach under the revised curriculum.

Production of guide books for teachers in various subjects has been started to bring them in line with the objectives of the academic reforms.

University Seminar

Government provides grants every year for summer Seminars for teachers in selected subjects. They are attended by college and university teachers from both the provinces. The purpose of the Seminars is to improve the knowledge of the participants in their respective fields of study, in particular, in the methods of teachign.

Numbers

The number of teachers has increased with the growth in institutions and enrolments.

The position in 1964-65 was as follows:

Primary	171,973
Secondary	85,555
General College	8,449
Professional Colleges	1,716
Teachers Training Institutions ..	1,309
Universities	1,877

The annual out-put of trained primary teachers has risen from 9,000 in 1958 to over 16,000. The increase has been more marked among women teachers where the number has risen from 2,000 to 4,500. The output of trained secondary teachers has increased from 1,000 to nearly 6,000 annually.

Salaries

The salaries of teachers form much the biggest part of the education budget—about three-quarters of it. Although teacher's salaries in Pakistan, as in most other countries, are not high, they are, in relation to the per capita income, much higher than the average obtaining elsewhere against 1½ to 2 times of the per capita income in advanced countries, while here it is more than 7 times. Recently the salaries of school and university teachers have been increased from 25 to 50 per cent. The scales now compare satisfactorily with the scales for government servants of comparable status.

Oriental and Religious Studies

In East Pakistan there are educational institutions called madrassahs which offer classical education in Arabic and Islamic subjects. They also teach such normal subjects, as arithmetic, history, geography, elementary science, Bengali, Urdu and even English. There is a separate Madrassah Education Board that controls them and conducts their examinations. In West Pakistan, some similar institutions at the primary level are called *maktabs*. There are also centres of higher learning called *darul uloom*. Public examinations are carried out for middle, secondary, graduation and master's levels. The object of this education is to produce well-educated religious instructors, *khatibs* and *imams*.

In 1965, these institutions numbered over 5,000 and were attended by some 458,400 students.

There are in addition, in the East wing, Buddhist and Sanskrit *tols* which impart instructions in the Buddhist and Hindu scriptures respectively.

HIGHER RESEARCH

Fundamental research is supported and carried out by all the universities. Encouragement is also given by awarding research stipends, scholarships and, in the case of teachers, extra increments in salary and study leave for going abroad. Most of the teaching departments develop their own research programme. Research activities of various universities is co-ordinated by the Inter-University

Board. The newly established Islamabad University is to be primarily devoted to research work.

In the field of applied research, there are two important organisations: the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research and the Atomic Energy Commission. The former's functions are to promote and foster scientific research having a bearing on industrial development and the utilisation of natural resources to the best economic advantage. The Atomic Energy Commission's functions include procurement, manufacture and disposal of all radio-active substances, carrying out of surveys of radio-active material, assessment of the country's requirements, and establishing atomic energy and nuclear research institutes at suitable centres. It has set up the country's first atomic reactor at Islamabad, and a second is to go up at Rooppur. (See also Chapter 16.)

The Institute of Islamic Research, set up in 1960, is another important research organisation. The Constitution of the country requires all legislations to be in conformity with the teachings of Islam. It is the function of this Institute and of the Islamic Advisory Council to examine issues and proposals from this point of view. The Institute carries out its studies on a continuous basis.

ADULT EDUCATION

As the large majority of the adult population, specially in rural areas, is illiterate, a heavy programme of adult education has been under way. In 1964-65, there were 533 adult schools in the country with an enrolment of over 12,600. They have been set up in municipal areas, receiving grants-in-aid from local bodies and donations from members of the public. The education is free.

WOMEN EDUCATION

The rise in female education in recent years is of particular significance. This has occurred at all the levels and in almost all fields of education. The 1961 census listed several cities and towns where female literacy ranged from nearly 60 per cent to over 22 per cent whereas the overall literacy of the country was less than 22 per cent.

During 1964-65 the number of girls in primary schools was nearly 1.8 million, and in secondary schools a little under half a million. The number in the former case was nearly 40 per cent of the boys and in the latter about 50 per cent.

There has been a sharp increase in girls' schools. In 1964-65 there were nearly 10,000 primary and 1,330 secondary schools for girls. Apart from the secondary level, there is co-education at all other levels, although separate institutions also exist.

SCHOLARSHIPS

Of the total public expenditure on education five per cent is devoted to government internal merit scholarship scheme. Merit scholarships are available at both secondary school and higher education levels. They are both residential and non-residential. The former covers boarding, lodging, tuition, books and other educational costs plus pocket money; the latter do not include boarding and lodging

expenses. These scholarships go mainly to children of parents earning less than Rs 500 a month.

Eight Presidential awards are given to brilliant and outstanding students of secondary, intermediate, graduate and postgraduate stages of education.

Scholarships are also available for overseas study instituted by the Government, or given by international agencies, foreign governments, and private bodies. For the most part these scholarships are intended for postgraduate study or practical training. During 1965-66, 124 such foreign scholarships/fellowships were made available.

A few scholarships are available to Pakistani students under cultural exchange programme with other countries, the Pakistan Government in turn offering facilities for students from abroad. In the past few years the number of these scholarships has risen considerably. In 1958-59, there were only seven foreign scholars in Pakistan; in 1963-64, there were 134. During 1965-66 the number rose to 155.

Such foreign scholarships/fellowships usually do not cover all the expenses. Government spends Rs 100,000 to supplement expenses for passage, etc.

Two scholarships are awarded to each University for students securing top position in Honours and other post-graduation examinations, for higher studies at approved Universities abroad.

Under a Central Overseas Training Scheme universities and education departments select outstanding scholars and send them to the most suitable foreign institutions in the fields of study in which Pakistan's needs are felt to be great. 53 scholars are at present studying abroad under this scheme.

Pakistanis Abroad

In an attempt to check the 'brain drain' the Ministry of Education awards fellowships to Pakistanis who have completed their studies abroad to enable them to return to the home country and work at some national university. The scholarships are awarded at the request of the university employing the scholars and carry the guarantee that the university will absorb them on the staff within one year at a salary not less than that at which the Ministry financed the initial engagement.

According to a directory for 1963-64, there were well over 2,000 Pakistanis abroad, studying mainly in European countries, the USA and in Japan. Over 30 per cent of them were studying engineering and technology, and 20 per cent accountancy, followed next by natural sciences, social sciences, law, agriculture and medicines. According to the 1964-65 directory, nearly 2,000 Pakistanis were studying in the United Kingdom alone. Over 550 were in engineering and technology, 400 in accountancy, 160 in law, 150 in social sciences and 100 in the humanities.

National Languages

Promotion of national languages with a view to their adoption as media of instruction at all levels has been accepted as a government policy. Primary and secondary education, except in a minority of private English medium schools, is already imparted in these languages. At the higher level, the Karachi and Rajshahi Universities have recently changed to Urdu and Bengali respectively and the Punjab University is adopting the same policy. Simultaneously, efforts are being made to develop the languages further, by the preparation of text books and ancillary literature in them. The universities, and some of the learned bodies are engaged in this task, receiving full encouragement and assistance from central and provincial governments. The learned bodies include: Anjuman Taraqqui-e-Urdu (which is preparing a several volume Urdu lexicon), the two Boards for the promotion of Urdu and Bengali, the Bengali Academy, and the Pakistan Writers' Guild. (Also see Chapter 25).

Libraries

The oldest and largest library in the country is at the Punjab University. It dates from 1882. It has a collection of nearly 200,000 volumes, including over 18,000 manuscripts in Urdu, Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, Hindi, Pali, and Gurmukhi, some of which are rare. It subscribes to 300 periodicals in different languages. Dacca University has a collection of over 180,000 volumes, excluding 30,000 Bengali, Sanskrit, Urdu, Persian and Punthi manuscripts. Third among the universities is Karachi with over 110,000 volumes, 2,000 manuscripts and subscribing to 500 periodicals. The others have over 50,000 volumes each.

The Central Government's Directorate of Archives and Libraries collects and maintains current and non-current records of government departments as well as important historical documents. The more important of them are microfilmed and photostated and kept for research and reference. The Directorate of Archives and Libraries maintains three Libraries: the Liaquat National Library (150,000 books); the Central Secretariat Library (16,000); and the National Archives Library (7,600). By 1970 the Directorate will have two more libraries at Dacca and Islamabad.

The National Bibliographical Unit of this Directorate collects bibliographical data in respect of Pakistani books, periodicals, newspapers and government publications, compiles and publishes them. It has published the volume for 1962, and is following up with others of subsequent years.

The International Book Exchange centre, which is also under the same Directorate, exchanges books and publications with foreign countries. These are received either in exchange, or as gifts, and are then distributed among the libraries in the country. The Centre has so far received about 25,000 books and publications from abroad and has distributed 15,000 of them.

Among departmental libraries, the State Bank of Pakistan with its 30,000 volumes, has the biggest collection of books on economic and related aspects. The Library of the Department of Archaeology

contains 25,000 books.

The All Pakistan Women's Association is setting up one children's library, at Dacca with financial grants from the Central Government. It has already set up one at Karachi.

Public libraries maintained by provincial governments or municipal committees exceed fifty. The Punjab Public Library has a stock of over 125,000 volumes and has 1,000 rare manuscripts. The National Museums at Karachi and Dacca, the Central Library of Bahawalpur, and the East Pakistan Central Public Library also have large collections.

The Rajshahi Varendra Research Society has a collection of 3,000 old Sanskrit, Pali and Bengali manuscripts, some of them written on palm leaf.

A number of private organisations and autonomous bodies also maintain specialised libraries.

Association and Education

Set up in 1948, the Punjab Library Association, now renamed the West Pakistan Library Association, was the first professional association to be formed in Pakistan. Later, the Karachi Library Association, East Pakistan Library Association and the All Pakistan Library Association were formed. A Society for the Promotion and Improvement of Libraries (SPIL), has also been established at Karachi.

The associations offer a certificate course in library science. Sind University also offers such a course. Four other universities (Dacca, Lahore, Karachi and Peshawar) conduct a post-graduate diploma course in library science; two of them (Dacca and Karachi) also offer an M.A. degree. These courses are mainly designed to produce librarians with a thorough grounding in operational work. The duration of the diploma course is of one academic year in all the four universities.

So far, the library schools in Pakistan have produced about 1,100 librarians holding certificates, diplomas and degrees in library science. The present overall requirement is of 10,000.

STUDENT ORGANISATION AND WELFARE

Students in Pakistan freely form their unions and associations, through which they make known their needs and problems and also carry out their social and cultural activities. These associations are mostly local, and include those formed in individual institutions and in students halls and hostels. They elect their own office-bearers, and frame their own Constitutions. Sometimes, local associations federate and form provincial and national organisation. The All Pakistan Students Movement and the Pakistan Students Conference are two such national organisations.

Government have taken a keen interest in the development of student activities and has been responsive to their needs and problems. A Commission headed by a Supreme Court judge, carried a prolonged enquiry on students problems and welfare. Its Report was accepted by the Government and its recommendations are being pursued.

REFORM COMMISSIONS

The education system of the country, as inherited from pre-Independence days, was defective in many ways—partly inherently, and partly in the context of needs of an independent and developing society. Accordingly, it has continually been under examination. Beginning with the First Educational Conference in November 1947, several expert bodies have, from time to time, made thorough appraisals of the problems and needs of education generally, and in respect of specific aspects. Among the early appraisals were the Six-Year National Development Plan for Education formulated in 1952, and the first Five-Year Plan of economic development. The two later Five-Year Plans also kept educational needs in full view when making their proposals in this sector.

Commission on National Education

The most recent and also the most thorough study was undertaken soon after the Revolution of October 1958, being one in a long series of expert studies of major aspects of the national life. The Commission on National Education, comprising some of the top educationists of the country was set up in December, 1958. Based on its terms of reference the Commission set about its task by first drawing up a detailed questionnaire to gather opinions from people concerned with education either as teachers, students, policy-makers or as guardians. Thereafter, the Commission toured the country, visited institutions, held numerous direct interviews with an assortment of individuals. It submitted a detailed report in August, 1959 containing a full-length discussion of every aspect of the problem, and made specific recommendations in each case.

Among the recommendations were a reorientation of the curricula at all levels but especially at the primary and secondary, and the setting up of machinery for this purpose; reorganisation at the secondary and under-graduate levels to make the division from higher education more complete and realistic; making primary education free and compulsory upto first five years of education and then gradually to eight. The commission recommended the development of the national languages with a view to their adoption as the media of instruction. Reorientation of curricula was especially intended to promote character building on the one hand, and the requirements, on the other, of an economically developing society. Recommendations were made in respect of the working and service conditions of teachers.

Commission on Students Problems and Welfare

A Commission on Students Problems and Welfare was set up in December, 1964, especially to study certain student difficulties.

This Commission, in addition to studying specific claims of student bodies, went into almost all the major aspects of education in the country. It exchanged views with hundreds of people and gave its recommendations in 15 chapters of a report that exceeded 200 pages. The recommendations cover all levels and branches of formal education, and its administrative aspects.

16. SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

Introductory.

Government's Promotion of the Sciences. Ministerial Responsibility; Organisation; Five-Year Plans; Education System; Scientific Commission.

Scientific Organisations: National Science Council; Council for Scientific and Industrial Research; Agricultural Research Council: *Irrigation Research Institute*; Medical Research Council: *Medical Research Institution*; Atomic Energy Commission; Meteorological Department.

Learned Bodies. Association for the Advancement of Science; Academy of Sciences; Universities.

Scientific Research. Agricultural Research; Irrigation Research; Industrial Research; Medical Research; Nuclear Research; Meteorological Service.

Dissemination, Documentation and Exchanges. Dissemination of Results of Agricultural and Industrial Research; National Documentation Centre (PANSDOC); International Liaison.

The role of science and technology in helping to solve the country's problems of food, health, shelter, clothing and education for a population rising by about three million every year, is being increasingly recognised in Pakistan. The example of countries where science has helped to compress a century of progress into a few decades has made the appreciation of its role more keen. The pioneering contribution made to science by Mulsim scholars for 500 years when Europe was passing through its dark ages are recalled to show that although now the Afro-Asian peoples are far behind the West in this sphere it is not because they have lacked the talent, or the tradition.

The late revival of scientific studies in this sub-continent has been in part due to British rule. Although the British developed one of the finest canal systems in the western wing of this country turning the desert into a granary, built an elaborate railway net-work and a very fine road system, they did almost nothing to make technology take its own root in these soils. They made practically no provision for scientific or technical or vocational education. Agricultural practices remained as static as ever; the revolution of fertilisers and pesticides did not touch these parts; and even the steel plough continued to be imported from abroad.

For Pakistan, a further circumstance was that such developments as had taken place in this sub-continent, especially by way of the setting up of scientific institutions, fell to the share of India after indepen-

dence. All Pakistan inherited in 1947 was one hydraulics and irrigation research laboratory at Lahore, a small jute research station in Dacca, and three fruit preservation laboratories. Of universities, it had just two, and a third only four months old.

GOVERNMENT'S PROMOTION OF THE SCIENCES

Following independence, more especially since the end of the fifties, attention has been paid to the development and application of science and technology, both with a view to developing the scientific spirit and skills and solving problems on hand (such as improving crop production in quantity and quality, controlling diseases, manufacturing goods). There is now some realisation in the private sector for the need to promote scientific researches, but for a long time yet all initial responsiblity will have to be borne by the Government.

Ministerial Responsibility

Government have created a separate division for scientific and technological research which was located in the President's Secretariat, which is to say, the President held direct charge of it. Recently, it has been made an independent Division entrusted to the Minister of Commerce. The following functions are allocated to it:

(*a*) co-ordination of applied research in the scientific and technological field, including scrutiny of development projects and co-ordination of development programmes;

(*b*) promotion of applied research and utilisation of results of research in the scientific and technological field carried out at home and abroad;

(*c*) guidance to research institutions in the Centre and the provinces in the field of applied scientific and technological research;

(*d*) co-ordination of utilisation of manpower for scientific and technological research.

The Ministry of Education is responsible for grants to universities for scientific research as well as other purposes. Scholarships and fellowships for foreign training are also directed through it.

The Ministry of Defence is responsible for the Meteorological Department, which carries out research in meteorology and geophysics.

Agricultural research is the final concern of the Ministry of Agriculture. Similarly, research in industrial field is linked to the Ministry of Industries.

The President of Pakistan, who is the country's chief executive, has a top-ranking scientific adviser.

Organization

Government has established and promoted several scientific organisations. There are firstly, the major scientific departments of Government's own, such as those of meteorology, survey and hydraulics. Their activities have expanded much especially in recent years.

The budget of the Meteorological Department, for instance, has risen from a little over Rs 2.1 million in 1948-49 to Rs 11 million in 1966-67, apart from an average capital expenditure of Rs 7 million.

Next, are major autonomous organisations like the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, the Atomic Energy Commission, the Medical Research Council, the Agricultural Research Council, the Irrigation, Drainage and Flood Control Research Council and the Council for Housing and Works Research (the last named yet in a formative stage). All these receive large allocations from the Government.

Third, are the numerous research institutions, either under these Councils or a part from them, such as the Irrigation Research Institute and the cotton, jute, tea, rice and such other research institutions. There are also a few professional research institutions that receive grants from the Government.

Development Plans

The development plans of the country have been laying increasing emphasis on scientific research. The First Plan allocated Rs 77 million, and the Second raised the figure nearly four times. The current Plan's overall expenditure will be even higher.

The Second Plan considered the promotion of science and technology as an integral part of any sound plan for the effective utilisation of the natural and human resources of the country. The Plan's recommendations included commercial exploitation by private enterprise of the processes so far evolved, expansion of present activities in scientific and industrial research, and assistance to libraries, scientific institutions and other public and private agencies.

The Plan provided full-time research professorships in the principal universities and technical institutions of the country.

During the Third Plan period, a further expansion of research activities is envisaged. The Pakistan Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, for instance, would be establishing new institutions for research on fuels and minerals and develop research activities in the field of food, leather technology, etc.

Improvement of quality, expansion of facilities for study and research in scientific and technological disciplines, and consolidation of resources in general will be the keynote of the development of universities in the Third Plan. In the universities, the Plan provides for a strengthening of post-graduate study and research and the setting up of an institute of applied research in selected universities for multi-disciplinary research and study.

Expenditure

Government expenditure on scientific research in the country takes several forms. There are the grants to universities, yearly allocation made to research councils and other research organisations, expenditure of the scientific departments of the Government, scholarships and stipends given to trainees, and the canalisation of foreign aid or grants towards research projects.

Education System

The education system has recently been reorganised from the base. Exposure to science now begins in the early years of the child's education, and gradually vocational and technical training becomes an integral part of secondary and higher education. A number of polytechnics have been set up, and more are being added as the demand grows. At the university level, where, again, the number of students in the scientific faculties has been outstripping facilities, an emphasis is being placed on research work. In 1962, four exclusively scientific universities were established, two agricultural and two for engineering and technology.

Estimate of number of trained Scientists

In 1960, the Scientific Commission estimated the number of research scientists in the country to be around 300. There has been rapid improvement since then. The Atomic Energy Commission, alone, now employs nearly 265 scientists and geologists. In addition it has about 160 agriculturists, engineers and medical doctors. The Council of Scientific and Industrial Research has 750 scientists. Upto 1965, it had sent 300 of them for foreign training, and intends sending another 300 during 1965-70.

The number of young Pakistanis abroad studying the natural sciences and technology exceeds the combined number of the rest. The immediate objective is to begin producing about 7,000 scientist and technicians in the country every year.

The Scientific Commission

One of the earliest reform commissions set up by the new regime was one on science. The Scientific Commission was composed of senior Pakistani scientists and administrators, and was advised by a group of foreign scientists of international repute. The Commission was asked—

(*a*) to consider how best scientific research, which at present is disjointed and scattered, can be promoted and integrated;

(*b*) to consider ways and means for providing adequate facilities to the various research organizations of the country and ensuring the utilisation of the result of their researches for the overall development of the country;

(*c*) to consider ways and means of making the scientific career attractive and comparable in future prospects in respect of emoluments and status to other services of equal national importance.

The commission took stock of the existing situation and sounded informed public opinion through questionnaires and direct interviews held all over the country. The recommedations then made by the Commission included the following:

(*a*) *Research Councils* to be set up/reorganised, as follows:

(*i*) an agricultural research council,

(*ii*) a medical research council,

(*iii*) a council of scientific and industrial research,

(*iv*) an atomic energy council,

(*v*) a council for works and irrigation research, and

(*vi*) a separate organisation for defence research.

Although these councils were to be attached to the central ministries concerned (agricultural council with Ministry of Agriculture, etc), they were required to be completely autonomous and managed by the scientists themselves. The Councils were to establish institutes and laboratories for investigation and research on specific problems of importance, maintain liaison with universities, and build science museums and libraries.

(*b*) *A national science council*, directly under the President or a minister nominated by him, for co-ordinating the activities of research councils and advising government on matters of scientific policy.

(*i*) *The universities* to be given generous grants—capital grants for building science laboratories, libraries and workshops, and recurring grants for maintenance and expansion of facilities for teaching and research.

(*ii*) *Total expenditure* of at least one per cent of the gross national product to be allowed to financing the activities of the councils and the universities.

(*iii*) *Scientific literature* of all kinds to be allowed to be freely imported by universities, research councils, and other scienfic agencies.

(*iv*) *Migration of scientific talent* (or its diversion into administrative services) to be checked by completely revising the current pay scales. A regular service cadre of scientists was recommended.

(*v*) *Basic and applied research* both considered important.

Although the country's problems were pressing, it was felt that the applied solutions must spring from the seeds of basic research. However, greater emphasis was to be placed on applied research for some time.

Government accepted the soundness of these recommendations and has since implemented many of them.

SCIENTIFIC ORGANISATIONS

National Science Council

On the recommendations of the Scientific Commission a National Science Council was set up. Its membership comprises the Chairmen of all the research councils, the Chief Scientific Adviser to the President, the Chief Scientist of the Ministry of Defence, six leading scientists (two Vice-Chancellors from the universities, nominated by the Inter-Universities Board, and four nominated by the President, two from each wing, from the technical departments of the government), and secretaries of the technical ministries to which the research councils are attached. The objects of the Council are:

(*a*) to co-ordinate the plans, programmes and schemes of scientific research prepared by the various Research Councils;

(*b*) to assess and evaluate the results of research conducted by the Research Councils, and to recommend, where neces-

sary, measures for the utilisation of these results; and

(*c*) to advise the Central Government on matters conected with the development of scientific research, including any particular issue referred to it by Government.

Council for Scientific and Industrial Research

Among research organisations, the largest is the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research. Patterned after the British Institution, the Council made modest beginnings in 1953, and has grown up fast since.

On the Scientific Commission's recommendations, it has been reconstituted, by a resolution of 1963, providing greater autonomy in the management of its affairs. The functions of the Council are as follows:

(*a*) initiation, promotion and guidance of scientific and industrial research having a bearing on problems connected with the development of industry and other allied matters;

(*b*) establisdment or development of national institutions, and financial assistance to universities and other institutions for research, testing and standardisation, encouragement for the establishment of research associations;

(*c*) establishment and award of fellowships in subjects within the sphere of the Council;

(*d*) collection and dissemination of information on scientific and industrial matters; publication of scientific papers, reports and periodicals of the Council; establishment of libraries, museums, etc;

(*e*) taking out of patents, and arrangement of industrial utilisation of research processes developed in institutes and laboratories; and

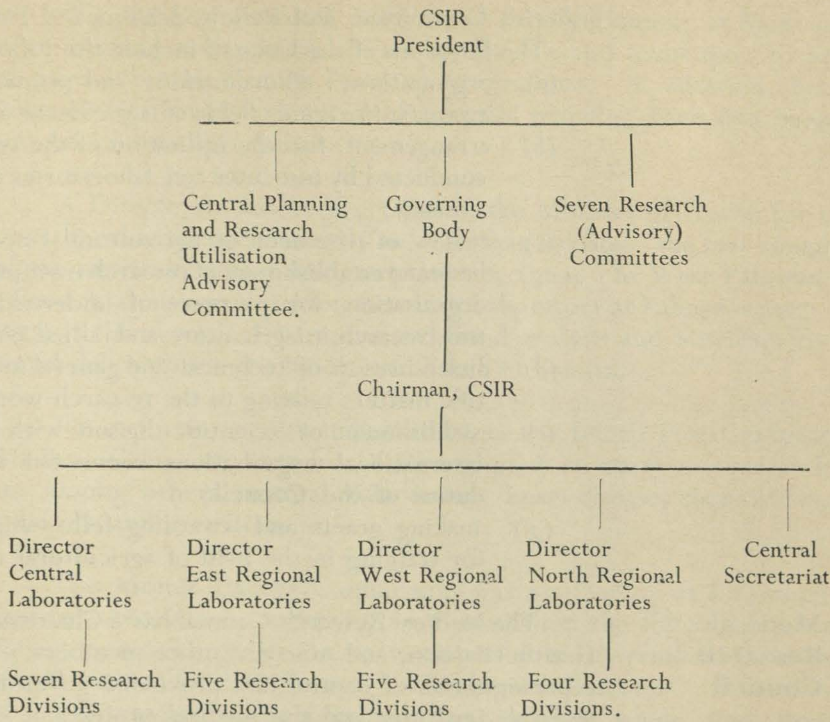
(*f*) maintenance of contact with organisations of other countries.

The Council consists of 21 members, including representatives of relevant central government ministries, provincial governments, research institutions and learned bodies and the industrial community. The chairman, a person 'actively engaged in the pursuit of science and eminent in his own field of specialisation' is appointed, by the President.

The general direction and superintendence of the affairs of the Council, including administration of its funds, is vested in a Governing Body of seven persons, which exercises all powers and does all acts which may be exercised or done by the Council. In discharging the functions, the Governing Body is guided by such instructions on questions of policy as may be given to it by the Central Government.

For its researches, the Council has set up four multi-functional laboratories, one each at Karachi, Dacca, Lahore and Peshawar, and each headed by a director. They are each situated near the university campus so as to facilitate collaboration with the latter institutions. They

ORGANISATIONAL CHART OF CSIR



have research divisions for separate subjects, as follows:

The Central Laboratories, at Karachi, have seven research divisions for physical, chemical and biochemical researches, for drugs (including pest infestation), building materials, fuel and engineering.

The East Regional Laboratories, at Dacca, have five divisions, for natural products, fuel, food and fruit technology, leather and glass and ceramics.

The West Regional Laboratories, at Lahore, also have five divisions, for metallurgical research, industrial fermentation, oil, fats and waxes, glass and ceramics, and food technology.

The North Regional Laboratories, at Peshawar, have four divisions for indigenous drugs, fruit technology, minerology and wool.

Documentation Centre

With the assistance of UNESCO, the CSIR has set up a well-equipped scientific documentation centre (PANSDOC). This serves both institutions and individuals who need any bibliographies or other documentation assistance.

Agricultural Research Council

On the recommendation of the Scientific Commission, the Food and Agriculture Council was replaced in November, 1964, by the Agricultural Research Council. The Council consists of 23 members, representing central and provincial governments, universities and the farming class. It operates through its technical committees, namely: the Agricultural Committee, Plant Protection Committee, Forestry Committee, Animal Health and Production Committee,

Fisheries Committee, and Policy, Liaison and Finance Committee.

The functions of the Council include the following:

(*a*) organisation, co-ordination, and promotion of scientific research in various fields of agriculture and allied subjects;

(*b*) arrangement for the utilisation of the results of researches conducted by institutes and laboratories associated with the Council;

(*c*) review of the need of agricultural research on a national basis and establishment of research institutes or other needed organisations for purposes of undertaking special studies and research in agriculture and allied fields;

(*d*) dissemination of technical and general information on scientific matters relating to the research work of the Council;

(*e*) establishment of scientific liaison with other national and international organisations connected with the scientific duties of the Council;

(*f*) making grants and awarding fellowships and scholarships for training in the field of agricultural research.

Medical Research Council

The Medical Research Council has a Chairman nominated by the Health Division, and nineteen other members. The latter include representatives of central and provincial governments, universities, research institutes and the medical profession. The aims, objects and functions of the Council include the following:

(*a*) organisation, co-ordination and promotion of scientific research in various fields of medicine and public health;

(*b*) arrangement for the utilisation of research conducted in institutes and laboratories associated with the Council;

(*c*) dissemination of technical and general information on scientific matters relating to the research work of the Council;

(*d*) liaison with other national and international organisations connected with the scientific activities of the Council;

(*e*) making of grants and awarding fellowships and scholarships for medical research.

Medical Research Institutions

There are several medical research institutions that are doing considerable work in different branches of medicine and health.

Public Health

A Public Health Research Institute at Dacca is carrying out research in public health, nutrition, pathology, malariology and drugs as well as on the value of tropical medicines, indigenous herbs, and pharmaeopoeial preparations used in *unani*, *ayurvedic* and *homoeopathic* practices. A research unit has also been started in association with the Maryland State University (of USA) for the study of various public health problems.

Cholera

A Cholera Research Laboratory, sponsored by SEATO, has been established at the Public Health Institute at Dacca to carry out research work on the epidemiology of cholera.

Family Planning

The National Research Institute of Family Planning at Karachi is conducting research on various approaches and techniques to be employed in the Family Planning programme. In addition, five research-cum-training institutes of family planning have also been set up in the provinces.

Nutrition

A Directorate has been created in the Ministry of Health for a country-wide survey on nutrition. In East Pakistan, the first round of the nutrition survey was completed in 1964. In West Pakistan, a Food Analysis and Nutrition Research Laboratory at Lahore is carrying out this work. Two more such food analysis and nutrition research laboratories are being established at Quetta.

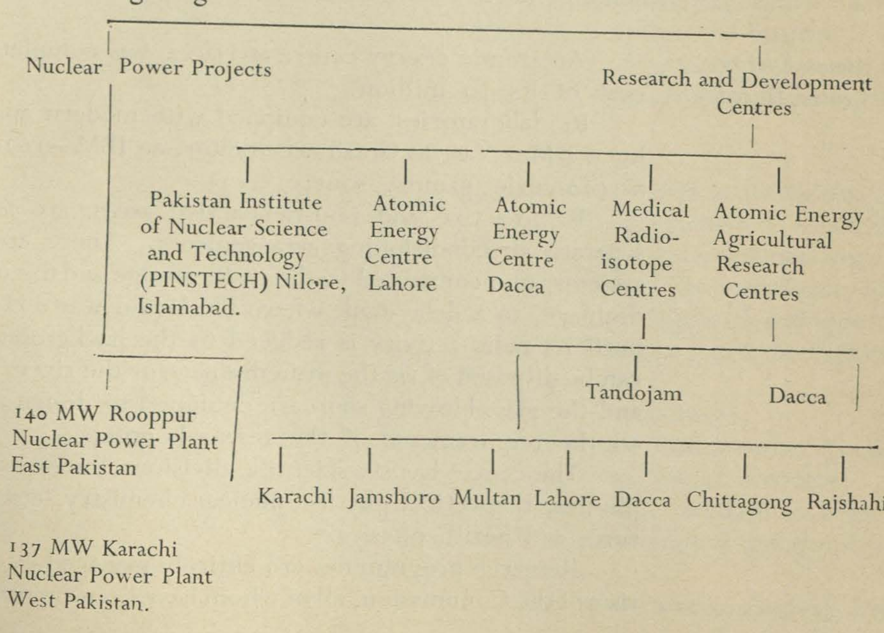
Other Institutions

An important research institution is the Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre at Karachi. It is equipped to carry out research in, among others, mental retardation, heart disease, rheumatism, paralysis and nutrition.

Atomic Energy Commission

The Atomic Energy Commission was first set up as a Council in 1955, but was upgraded into a Commission the following year. An autonomous organisation, it is responsible to Government through the Division of Scientific and Technological Research. It consists of a chairman and seven members, three of them whole time, four part-time. The Secretariat, headed by a Secretary, comprises nine divisions namely, Research, Nuclear Power, Training, Information, International Affairs, Finance, Works and Services, Procurement and Supplies, and Administration and Establishment. The scientific and technical establishment of the Commission is described in the following diagram.

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COMMISSION



The Commission studies and exploits the possibilities of peaceful uses of atomic energy in the country. It is responsible for the procurement, supply, manufacture and disposal of radio-active substances. It carries out surveys of radio-active minerals and plans establishment of atomic energy and nuclear research institutes at suitable places in the country. Broadly, its main activities can be grouped as follows:

(*a*) harnessing of atomic energy by conversion into electric power; and

(*b*) application of radio-isotopes and radiation sources problems in agriculture, industry and medicine.

Institute of Nuclear Science and and Technology

The Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology at a place called Nilore near the capital, Islamabad, is an ambitious project, expected to be fully completed by 1970. The first phase was completed with the setting up of the atomic reactor in December, 1965. The second phase, now under way, consists of the setting up of research laboratories for nuclear engineering and physics, radiobiology, radiation chemistry, medicine, nuclear chemistry, electronics, etc. In the final phase, a complex of chemical laboratories will be set up for the fabrication and reprocessing of nuclear fuel elements on a pilot plant scale.

The swimming-pool style reactor which split its first atom in December, 1965, is meant for training scientists and engineers, and producing isotopes for biological, medical and industrial research.

The Institute is designed to be the country's leading centre for advanced study and research. Nearly 1,000 scientists will be able to conduct research in various laboratories of this institute in different fields of nuclear science and technology.

Atomic Energy Centre, Dacca

An atomic energy centre at Dacca was completed in 1965 at a cost of Rs 10 million.

Its laboratories are equipped with modern apparatus, including a 3-Mev Van de Graaff accelerator, an IBM—1620 computer and a 500-curie gamma source.

Radio-active and non-radioactive areas are isolated by two separate air-conditioning arrangements. There are two drainage, systems, one connected to the main sewage and the other, called hot drainage, to a delay-tank where the liquid waste is allowed to stay until its radio-activity is reduced to the background level when it can be disposed of *via* the main drainage or the river. The workshop and the glass-blowing shop are equipped to design and manufacture all the requirements of the research groups.

The centre has six scientific divisions, for experimental nuclear physics, theoretical physics, nuclear chemistry, electronics, agriculture, and health physics.

Research programmes are entirely managed by the senior scientists of the Commission, all of whom have been trained abroad. Some

visiting scientists from abroad are working as members of different research groups.

Atomic Energy Centre, Lahore

The Atomic Energy Centre at Lahore started functioning in 1961. It has a 150 kv neutron generator, and recently a 14 Mev neutron beam has been made available. In addition, there are the water-moderated sub-critical assembly, a 512-channel analyser, a 13,000 curie cobalt source and an analogue computer.

The Centre has four main scientific divisions: nuclear physics, electronics, radio chemistry and radiation chemistry, the radiobiology, and health physics.

Atomic Energy Agricultural Research Centre, Tandojam

For studying agricultural problems of West Pakistan, particularly in the former province of Sind, the Atomic Energy Commission set up in November 1963 an Agricultural Research Centre within the Campus of the Agriculture College at Tandojam. Modern and fully equipped laboratories for research in plant physiology, genetics and plant breeding, entomology and soil science have been provided in addition to a green house. A 250 curie cobalt source has also been installed to facilitate studies on pest control and evolution of better varieties of crops.

Irrigation Research Institute

The Irrigation Research Institute is the earliest research organisation of the country, and the only one of its kind, beginning its existence in the thirties. However, till recently it was not well-equipped, and all schemes pertaining to the construction of dams and bridges, irrigation and other work problems were sent abroad for study. Since 1960, all these, and related problems, including flood control, water and power development, drainage, water-logging, land reclamation and design research, have been studied within the Institute.

The Institute has been under extensive reorganisation at a total cost of Rs 9 million. The final phase will be completed during the current Plan period.

Meteorological Department

The Pakistan Meteorological Services, which have grown steadily since independence into a major scientific organization, serve the general public at large, governmental and semi-governmental organizations dealing with development and welfare of the community and other interests, through its Headquarters at Karachi and Quetta, Regional Centres at Karachi, Lahore and Chittagong and the Pakistan Air Force (Meteorological Branch).

The main functions of the Services are as follows:

(*a*) to issue timely warnings against hazardous weather phenomena for the prevention and mitigation of disasters;

(*b*) to promote traffic security and public welfare in respect of the meteorological, hydrometeorological and geophysical factors;

(*c*) to provide advice and information on meteorological, hyd-

rometeorological, geophysical, astronomical and astrophysical matters to all civilian interests and to the Defence Forces in peace and war;

(*d*) to investigate the thermodynamic and hydrodynamic properties of the atomsphere for understanding the fundamental laws of nature and using this knowledge ultimately for trying to control and modify the weather and climate of the country to the best advantage.

The Department of Meteorology and Geophysics is a subordinate office under the Ministry of Defence and is headed by the Director, Meteorological Services. It has one administrative and four technical divisions. There are regional centres located at Karachi, Lahore and Chittagong, an Upper Atmospheric Research Station at Peshawar, a Geophysical Institute at Quetta and one Institute of Meteorology and Geophysics, at Karachi. The 1966-67 budget for the Meteorological Department is Rs 11 million, and the Third Plan provides for Rs 35 million for its development during 1965-70.

LEARNED BODIES

In addition to organisations such as the foregoing, there are academic or learned bodies concerned with scientific studies and research.

Association for the Advancement of Science

The Pakistan Association for the Advancement of Science was established in December, 1947. Among its other activities, the Association organises a science conference every year. Eminent foreign, as well as home scientists are invited, and they have an opportunity to discuss their activities. The Association promotes scientific research by the award of research fellowships and overseas scholarships. It exchanges scientific literature with foreign scientific associations.

Academy of Sciences

The Pakistan Academy of Sciences was inaugurated in February 1954. It is another important national organization concerned with the advancement of science. Its aims include promotion of research, publication of scientific journals, establishment of scientific libraries, laboratories and institutions, the award and grant of fellowships, scholarships, prizes and medals for scientific research.

In October 1966, the Academy instituted two gold medals for award to scientists for outstanding research work during the year. One medal is reserved for scientists below 40 years of age, and the other has no age restriction. The nomination will be made by universities or fellows of the Academy, judged by a special selection committee and finally approved by the Academy.

The general council of the Academy has also decided to set up four committees to draw up proposals for the promotion of fundamental research in the country in the spheres of physics, chemistry, botany and zoology.

The Academy was to hold one symposium in spring on problems of nutrition in tropical and sub-tropical regions. Another symposium is being held in autumn on soil sciences with special reference to waterlogging and salinity. Prominent scientists from overseas are

being invited to participate.

The Academy has sent a number of scholars to overseas universities for advanced scientific training. It maintains an up-to-date scientific library.

Unlike the Association for the Advancement of Science, the Academy has a limited membership of senior scientists and is mainly concerned with research rather than with the popularisation of scientific knowledge. It is financially supported by grants from the government and donations from philanthropic individuals.

Universities

Most of the general universities in Pakistan are doing advanced research work. The two agricultural universities and the two engineering and technological unversities, all established in 1961, lay special emphasis on research activities. In the Lyallpur Agricultural University, for instance, it is obligatory for all the faculty members to devote at least 25 per cent of their time to their own research. Secondly, all post-graduate students have to undertake research on approved problems and prepare their theses on them. Among the general universities, the Dacca university has recently procured modern equipment for all departments and advanced research is being conducted in chemistry, biochemistry and physics. The University has a few nuclear scientists who are working in collaboration with the Atomic Energy Commission. UNESCO has recently decided to set up two advanced science centres—one on chemical crystolography and the other on solid state physics.

SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

There has been considerable research and other scientific activity in recent years. Special emphasis has been placed on aspects related to the country's present needs. Studies are being made of new varieties of crops, pesticides and so on. New industrial products and methods of production are being experimented with. Continuous research work is being done at various centres on diseases, their incidence and possible cures. Some of these activities are described in the following paragraphs.

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Agricultural research is of prime importance in Pakistan: not only because the country is predominantly agricultural, but also because it is faced with the challenge of raising its agricultural output to feed its fast increasing population and to support its expanding industries.

The research problem consists of finding out ways of increasing the output and improving its quality. This requires developing new varieties of crops, evolving better ways of plant protection, discovering methods and uses of afforestation, promoting fisheries, and so on.

Important agricultural research began during the First Plan, which

included schemes for crop improvement in the areas of Guddu Barrage, Taunsa Barrage, Ganges-Kobadak Project, in Tharparkar desert, and Kohistan and Cholistan areas, and for development of fruit production. The Second Plan laid emphasis on short term research because of the urgency of increasing agricultural, particularly food grain, production.

Valuable research was done on the evolution of new varieties by crossing species; and on evolving such varieties as would stand heavy dosage of fertiliser, and could thrive in waterlogged area and saline soils. Studies were also made of disease resistance in plants. Research on different aspects of evolution, control of plant diseases, seed production, growing of early crops, etc. in respect of wheat, maize, sugarcane, sugar beets, jute, cotton, potatoes, vegetables and fruits has been pursued.

The Third Plan has recommended continuation of research programes undertaken in previous Plans, with particular stress on evolving higher yielding varieties of wheat, especially with stiff stems which are resistant particularly to rust and smut and on finding high yielding varieties for land which depends solely on rain for irrigation.

Jute

Research on jute, Pakistan's premier cash crop, are being conducted with the following objectives:

(*a*) to breed improved varieties for higher yields;
(*b*) to determine improved manuring practices for increasing the per acre yield;
(*c*) to find out improved agronomic practices for obtaining higher yields and reducing the cost of cultivation;
(*d*) to discover methods for controlling diseases and pests; and
(*e*) to develop improved retting practices.

The achievement, progress and future programme of work in in respect of jute research is briefly described below.

Improving Varieties

Since independence, 566 individual samples have been collected, which include different types of cultivated and wild species. As a result, several improved varieties have been evolved and released.

In the present stage of selection work for breeding further improved varieties, various types of progeny are under trial. On their present showing, they would give a yield at least 20 per cent above the present average.

Seeds of some existing varieties of jute were irradiated by exposure to X-ray and Neutron-ray. From the irradiated material, a few thousand plants were raised in 1961. On the basis of their chief characteristics (tallness—important for higher yield, disease resistance, and non-branching habit) individual plants were selected in 1962, 1963, 1964 and 1965 and recombined. It is expected that new seed with desirable character combinations will be finally evolved and then they will be compared with existing standard varieties in respect of yields, etc.

Apart from irradiation, other methods of evaluation of new varieties are hybridisation and polypbidy. There is in hand a recommended variety of the old group, but it branches out a little, which is an undesirable characterisation. A variety obtained from Brazil is non-branching and is taller than this. These two varieties have been crossed to combine the tallness and non-branching habit of the Brazil variety with the higher yielding quality of the other.

Studies have been carried out to find some basic information in respect of the jute plant. The possibility of utilising growth promoting substances, such as gibberellic acid, for the purpose of getting vigorous plants with accelerated growth, has been investigated. A second line of investigation is to find out some non-photo-sensitive varieties of jute.

Anatomical and cytological studies of jute are being made with a view to getting some basic information which may lead to solution of such applied problems, as incompatability of different species or varieties in hybridisation.

Researches into manuring and fertiliser practices have been undertaken in the soil Science Division of the Jute Research Institute, with several useful conclusions.

Another line of research is the method of sowing: the timing of sowing and harvesting for high and quality yield; methods of controlling weed; timing of irrigation; and methods of preservation of jute seeds without deterioration.

Plant Protection

The Plant Pathology department of the Jute Research Institute has also been active. Among various investigations, studies on the life history, including the physiology, of disease-producing fungi and the host, as well as their relationship in respect of parasitism, are being made with a view to finding out a method for forecasting the extent and time of occurrence of diseases so that control measures may be undertaken in due time. Studies have also been undertaken to find out effective methods of control by attacking the pathogens and improving the host.

For finding out improved methods of retting, micro-organisms that are normally involved in the process have been studied. It has been found that certain strains of bacilli are capable of retting jute more effectively. It has also been found that due to retting within a shorter period, the colour of the fibre is improved. For improved colouration, the addition of urea in the retting tank has also been found useful.

The enzymes of a retting fungus have been studied and identified.

Cotton

Research on cotton done at the Ayub Agricultural Research Institute at Lyallpur has resulted in the evolution of an early maturing, high-yielding variety which also has great adaptability to wide ranging climatic conditions. This selection outyields all other varie-

ties, by three to four maunds per acre. An extra long staple variety with over 1/4" staple length and with other desirable characters has also been developed.

Hybridisation and selection work on the evolution of better varieties of the following types is also in hand.

(*a*) long staple cotton,
(*b*) long staple Egyptian-American cotton, and
(*c*) medium staple cotton.

Wheat

Attempts have been made to evolve new varieties of wheat through hybridisation. The best results so far achieved were from the Mexican seeds from which a new variety (Mexipak-65) has been developed. This and another foreign variety (Penjarno-62) have outyielded other standard varieties. One of the local hybrids (C566) has also shown high promise, giving good fertiliser response. A second local variety (C 658) is giving good results in rainfed areas.

Work is going on in respect of multiplication of seeds by growing one wheat crop during autumn in the plains and a second crop during summer at higher altitudes. The breeding period at some places is now being cut down by growing two generations during one year.

Rice

Research work is mainly concerned with improvement of the rice crop through breeding, introduction of new variety and selection. From among the coarse rice varieties, some new selections outyielded the standard varieties and matured 15-20 days earlier. Out of the late maturing crosses, two gave better yield than the standard 370 *Basmati*. Very fine, long grained Basmati cultures have also shown great promise.

Other Crops

Several improved varieties have been developed from barley, gram, bajra and pulses. Early maturing, and pest and disease resistant hybrids of maize have also been evolved. The fodder research has been concentrating, with good promise, on ensuring supplies of green fodder throughout the year.

Horticulture

A new technique in horticulture, known as 'side grafting', has been developed. Intensive investigations have demonstrated that certain methods are very effective in controlling the fruit crop and improving the fruit quality. Research on the date palm has shown that severe pruning of leaves adversely affects the fruit. A breeding programme in citrus fruits and mangoes has been taken up to evolve better quality varieties. Research on deciduous fruits is also in progress. A new variety of apple, recently introduced from Australia, has been found suitable for cultivation in sub-tropical areas. New varieties of water-melon and musk-melon have been brought on the approved list.

Standardisation of cultural operation in the orchards and propaga-

tional methods are in hand to economise labour and to increase the per acre yield. To popularise the use of various hormones and other growth regulators, experiments are in hand.

Vegetables

The vegetable section is conducting intensive research on the evolution of improved varieties of different vegetables. In addition, work on determining the best cultural practices for securing high yield of fresh vegetables as well as their seed yield is in progress.

Work on the isolation and selection of high-yielding and better quality potatoes from those imported from abroad is in progress at Sialkot. A number of intravarietal and inter-specified hybrids has also been evolved which give better yields.

Two new varieties of potatoes, and new varieties of tomatoes and lady's fingers have been brought on the approved list on the basis of their higher yield and other desirable characteristics.

Plant Protection

Research has been going on the control of insects and pests on paddy and fruit trees, rust on wheat and barley, pyrilla on sugarcane, root-rot and black headed cricket on cotton. A new insecticide, *makrolene*, developed by the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research from waste products of Daudkhel fertiliser factory was tested for large-scale manufacture.

Animal Husbandry

Early research showed that alsmost all domestic animals and poultry in East Pakistan carried parasites in their digestive tracts and that 75 per cent of cattle and 25 percent of sheep were infected with liver fluke.

Studies have been made of the causes and control of parasitic virus and bacteriological disease; causes of sterility; animal breeding and artificial insemination techniques; processing of dairy products; dairy bacteriology; poultry and animal nutrition; preparation and storage of biological products.

The agricultural universities have been doing considerable research in stock and nutrition improvement aspects of livestock. For instance, nutritional experiments are in progress using various rations for fattening and improving the meat grade of bullocks and lambs. Various concentrates are being used to achieve a rapid rate of growth and sexual maturity in heifers. Experiments are being done to study the Oestrus cycle in buffaloes. Layer management studies using various breeds in different seasons of the year are in progress to assess the relative merit of different types of housing and other environmental conditions.

In poultry, reciprocal crosses of White Leg-horn and desi breeds have been made and behaviour is being examined. Development of the New Hemisphere breed as compared to Rhodes Island Red under hot tropical conditions is under study. A new poultry breed, which is considered to be suitable for local conditions will incorporate the *desi* breed in a cross with an improved breed.

Forestry

Forest research mainly aims at finding ways of quick and economical afforestation, and discovering new ways of utilisation of its products. In early years, forest research was concentrated on the introduction of economic species. Dry land afforestation experiments were carried out all over West Pakistan to evolve economical methods of establishing firewood crops under conditions of natural precipitation. The silviculture research programme included thorough investigations of the technique of dry afforestation. Special emphasis was laid on research in the utilisation of inferior woods.

In the chemical fields, investigations were recommended of chemical properties of inferior woods and their application in the manufacture of pulp, paper, plastic, and composite wood; besides investigation of methods for the cheap extraction and refining of products of economic use from forest crops. Other research schemes included a detailed survey and study of the insect pests of the forests of East Pakistan, manufacture of *katha* and tannin, extraction and purification of essential vegetable oils and active chemical agents from medicinal herbs.

Another direction of research, at the Chittagong Forest Research Laboratory, aimed at finding new and more economical uses for the durable timber of East Pakistan. For a large group of semi-durable and non-durable timbers, cheap preservatives were recommended. Chemical processes were evolved for pulping or converting soft wood into composite wood products to provide cheap material for furniture and packages.

Lately, silvicultural research has been intensified. Acclimatisation of exotic species, especially those which may be grown in water-logged, alkaline and dry areas, is being experimented with. Further studies on the seasoning and strength properties of various species, and on the suitability of indigenous species for veneering for tea chests, matches, pulp, pencils, furniture and other uses, are being undertaken.

Fisheries

The Central Fisheries Department has been carrying on several schemes, among them the testing of fishing gear and fishing methods in deep sea and inshore exploration. Technological and biological research is being carried out which includes studies of fish drying and curing methods, processing of fish products like manure and meal, and analysis of the vitamin content shark liver oil.

Biological research began mainly with the study of sardines, mackeral and tuna, and with the biology, ecology and migratory habits of the hilsa fish. Later research schemes included prawn and fish growth, fertilisation of water, mosquito control by fish, and elimination of predatory fish from impounded waters. There have also been experiments on extracting lubricating oil from tortoise, and printers ink from sharks' liver sediment.

The Second Plan provided for establishment of survey units to collect oceanographic and hydrological data about salinity, tempera-

ture and currents to help in determining fish habits and migration. Investigation of breeding foreign varieties of fish, control of fish parasites and diseases, and development of by-products, such as shark oil and fish ghee, has proceeded.

Exploratory surveys, so far confined to inshore waters, are now being intensified and extended to offshore waters. The stations and laboratories at Chandpur in East Pakistan, and at Chennawan and Karachi in West Pakistan are being expanded, and are continuing their work on fresh water and marine fish.

IRRIGATION RESEARCH

Allied to agricultural research are those concerned with hydraulics, subterranean supplies and drainage.

Important researches in these fields have taken the following directions:

(*a*) Detailed investigation of optimum water requirements of crops as a function of soil type and fertility, climate, growth density, and methods of irrigation and cultivation.

(*b*) Evolution of crops with a short growing season, which could be matured on flood supply.

(*c*) Tolerance of crops to salinity and/or water-logging, and development of strains resistant to excessive moisture and soil salts.

(*d*) Safe limits of salts in saline water, and the conditions under which saline water may be used.

(*e*) Efficient means of reducing losses in transport of water.

(*f*) Variation of evaporation and transportation losses in space and time.

(*g*) Mechanics of gains and losses in stream flow.

(*h*) Effect of floods on regeneration.

(*i*) Qualitative and quantitative distribution of silt loads in rivers and canals, and their variation in space and time.

(*j*) Subterranean supplies and drainage.

(*k*) Effects of liners and canal supplies on the quality and quantity of ground water.

(*l*) Determination of the optimum depth and spacing of drains in different soil and sub-soil types.

In addition, a number of studies have been made on the hydropower potential of the Indus Basin. Soil investigation and hydrogeological and hydro-chemical studies have been conducted over an area of 12 million acres in West Pakistan.

The current programme includes evolving methods for reclamation of saline and alkaline land, achieving effective use of water and land, determining effect of groundwater reservoir management, water quality changes and tubewell performance. Additional studies are to be undertaken of interaction of soils and water. The soil, water and agricultural monitoring programmes are being expanded.

MEDICAL RESEARCH

Medical scientists in Pakistan are carrying out research in a variety of diseases, some of them now at an advanced level.

The Jinnah Post-Graduate Medical Centre at Karachi has seven major projects on hand, sponsored by the Government or medico-social organisations at home and abroad. The subjects include mental retardation; heart disease; rheumatic fever; paraplegics (paralysis of the lower limbs due to spinal injury), radio-isotope studies of iron metabolism in infantile malnutrition.

Mental Retardation

The objective of the research in mental retardation is to evaluate the educational and vocational potential of mentally retarded persons. Among other objectives will be the development of a programme of medical, educational and vocational management of these persons.

Paralysis

The objective of the research project for paraplegics is to determine the causes of this disease. Each year about 100 to 150 patients are treated at the Centre. They are faced with psychological, social, vocational and economic insecurity because of sudden interruption of their limited efforts, and the aim is to help them to return to normal life.

Malnutrition in Children

Malnutrition in infants and children is one of the most serious medical problems in almost all the developing countries. A study of this problem, particularly radio-isotope studies on iron metabolism, has been sponsored by the International Atomic Energy Commission. It is also proposed to conduct a survey of diarrhoeal diseases among children in Karachi to determine incidence.

Heart Diseases

The longitudinal study of a community in Pakistan with a view to determining the incidence of various forms of heart diseases also aims at finding out the risk factors associated with the development of these diseases. Ways and means of preventing the incidence and ways of better rehabilitation of cardiac patients with the help of the data accumulated are also under investigation.

Rheumatic Disease

A study of rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart diseases, in Pakistan, is being undertaken with special reference to the rehabilitation of patients suffering from rheumatic heart disease.

Cholera

Since inception in 1960, the Pakistan-SEATO Cholera Research laboratory has been making a systematic study of cholera to find out how best it can be treated and prevented. The laboratory's work has two aspects:

(*a*) to study the environment of the disease and its habit pattern and the ways of living and methods of sanitation of the people in areas where cholera is most prevalent; and

(*b*) to conduct clinical research, and determine whether physical differences make certain people more susceptible to

cholera than others in the same neighbourhood and what physiological changes occur once a person has suffered from the disease.

The work of this laboratory, which has brought together a team of scientists from four countries, has assumed pioneering significance, since nowhere else in the world is there such an opportunity of studying cholera and its victims as in East Pakistan.

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH

During its 13 years of activity, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research has made a sizeable contribution to both fundamental and applied research. Over 450 research papers have been published and some 150 patents obtained, many of them with international coverage. So far it has leased out 19 processes to industry, and is leasing out 12 more. Already, 11 have gone into commercial production.

Particular mention may be made of some of the processes evolved by the Council which have reached the development stage and are likely to make an important contribution to the economy.

Pesticides from Fertiliser Waste

Three new chlorinated pesticides have been evolved: 'Makrolin', from gasoline, a waste product of Daudkhel Fertiliser Factory; 'Pektolin', from petroleum cuts; and 'Petkolin M' a modified form of 'Pektolin'. Field trails have established their effectiveness against a variety of insects and fungal pests in dosages comparable to those of the texaphenes. The most favourable feature of these pesticides is their extremely low toxicity, which is 400-600 times less than that of Endrin. Analysis abroad has confirmed their insecticidal value and also the fact that one part of Endrin mixed with four parts of Petkolin 'M' has the same insecticidal value as 100 per cent Endrin. An idea of the importance of these researches can be inferred from the fact that Pakistan has been importing pesticides costing about Rs 40 million annually, which barely supplies for 8 per cent of its plant protection requirements. A pilot plant has been imported from Germany and is being set up at Karachi to produce the indigenous patent Petkolins.

Pulp from Jute Waste

At present some 3 million tons of jute stems are being wasted as low grade fuel every year. A process has been evolved for the production of pulp from these stems out of which various grades of paper cellulose acetate and rayon can be manufactured.

New uses of Jute Seeds

Long range investigations have been carried out on the constituents of jute seed. As a result, it has been established that following a procedure of de-toxication, the extracted oil can be used both for industrial and edible purposes. These seeds have further been shown to provide an exceptionally rich source of the costly drug, strophanthidin, which is used in the treatment of cardiac ailments and also as a source of the sugar, raffinose, which has several economic

uses. These developments indicate the possibilities of large scale industrial exploitation.

Controlling Water-logging and Salinity

A pre-fabricated canal lining material, based on jute core suitably treated with a modified bitumen composition, including rot proof agents, has been developed. Easy to handle and capable of being economically installed by unskilled labour, this is already in commercial production.

Fish Smell Eliminated

According to a process newly developed, fish meat, if minced and treated with soya bean powder, becomes completely free from odour. It is estimated that a plant for processing 20,000 tons of raw fish will yield 800 tons of deodorised fish flour, 800 tons of non-deodorised fish flour, 1,600 tons of fish meal and 800 tons of fish oil per year.

Guar meal, a waste product of the guar-jum industry, has also been successfully processed and freed of its odour. It offers a source of high protein food stuff.

Vitamin A Concentrate

Long range studies in the production of Vitamin A concentrates from fish liver oil have ultimately led to the establishment of a new industry in Pakistan. This industry is manufacturing a number of preparations with standardised vitamin A and Vitamin D contents, covering most of the internal demand for vitamin A. It has now stepped up its turn-over and has started to export the concentrates to such countries as the U.K., Japan, Ceylon and Nepal.

Indigenous Medicinal Plants

Both provinces of Pakistan abound in medicinal flora. Among the most important of them is *rauwolfia serpentina*, various preparations of which have gained world-wide reputation in the treatment of a variety of cardio-vascular diseases and mental ailments. The pioneering status of the scientists of Pakistan for research leading to this development is internationaly recognised and, more recently, an alka loidal complex, *serpajmaline*, has been isolated by the CSIR from fresh undried roots of *rauwolfia*, a drug of choice in the treatment of heart diseases and high blood pressure, of various origins.

Low Cost Building Materials & Others

Other products evolved by the CSIR cover the whole range of low cost building materials. They include—

Jutoid, a jute-based rubberoid type of water-resistant;

Marbolite, artificially produced marble having the added advantage of being acid and alkali resistant, possessing shielding properties against gamma radiation and costing less than a quarter of the natural white marble;

Balcrete, an air-entraining agent based on waste proteins;

Cemto, a water-proofing agent;

Fixempro, an entirely new type of alkali-free composition for 'dry distemper'; *sand lime bricks*; *tack-free paints*; *hard-boards and insulating boards*, like bagasse and wood-chip boards, from agricultural wastes;

low cost *petrol gas plants*, *industrial adhesives*; *protein-rich foods from fish and vegetable wastes*; *wood preservatives*; *foot operated spinning machine* for cottage industry; and *soft drinks*. The industries based on some of these processes already account for an annual production potential of several million rupees.

Other problems of industrial importance which have been handled by the Council include: (*a*) research on Kalabagh low grade iron ores for their utilisation in iron and steel industry, (*b*) investigations on the desulphurisation of West Pakistan coals and the utilisation of their by-products, (*c*) development of improved tanning materials from *goran* and other barks.

ATOMIC ENERGY

As noted, Pakistan first split the atom in December, 1965. Since then, nuclear research in the country has gathered pace. Work is going on to develop the application of radio-active isotopes and fissured production in research on agriculture, medicine and industry. The 5 mw pool type research reactor at Nilore is being made to contribute substantially to the scientific effort. There are several ways in which the reactor can be used. The radiations, particularly the neutrons and gamma rays, are used for basic research in nuclear physics, analytical work, and to produce radio-isotopes such as Iodine 131, Phosphorous 32.

To supplement the training, research and development work done with the research reactor, several supporting facilities are being planned, such as a zero-power reactor, a sub-critical assembly, a fast computer.

Agricultural Research

The Atomic Energy Agriculture Research Centre at Dacca, started in 1960, has been doing considerable work in all six branches of its present activity, namely in plant nutrition, soil chemistry, plant genetics, entomology, electronics, health physics. The Tandojam Atomic Energy Agricultural Centre, inaugurated in November 1965, is equipped to carry out research work in the application of radioisotopes and atomic energy in the fields of soil chemistry, entomology, plant physiology, plant genetics, microbiology, and food preservation.

Plant Nutrition

The Plant Nutrition Section at Dacca worked on nitrogen translocation and utilisation of phosphorus by rice plants. It has been testing the relative suitability of urea and ammonium sulphate for different crops and for different soils.

Soil Chemistry

The application of radio-isotopes in agriculture has attained great importance in interpreting certain aspects of soil fertility and other intricate problems, to the great benefit of agricultural countries like Pakistan.

At Tando Jam, experiments have been done with labelled superphosphate in the lateritic soil and in recent alluvium. Further studies are in progress to evaluate, correlate and calibrate the most impor-

tant chemical tests to predict phosphorus requirement for cultivation.

At Dacca, the soil chemistry section carried out experiments on the utilisation of fertilisers by rice plants from different soils of East Pakistan (establishing, for instance, that Bogra soil reacted quite appreciably and showed a significant difference between treatments).

Plant Genetics

The most beneficial use of atomic radiation is in the field of plant genetics and plant breeding. Atomic radiations are capable of penetrating biological matter and can bring about structural changes in the chromosomes of plant cells. This phenomenon brings about mutations in plant with entirely new traits and performances. Although most of these traits could be deleterious, yet a few with desirable characters, such as higher capacity for yield, early or late maturity, better resistance to disease and pests and resistance to lodging, can be selected. In addition, such new varieties provide fresh material for plant breeders. By this technique of induced mutations, better varieties of cereals, oilseeds, fruits, vegetables and flowers have been evolved. The present target in this section, at both the Centres, is to evolve better varieties of wheat, rice, cotton, jute, sugarcane, and some vegetables and fruits.

Work is being done in the field of cytogenetics and mutations. The application of certain chemicals, instead of radiations, has produced quite interesting results for the induction of mutations.

Entomology

It is practically impossible to completely eradicate insects of all sorts affecting the crop or the produce, by insecticides alone. Radiations, however, have shown promise of doing this on a large scale. The sterile male technique, wherever applicable, shows striking results. Explorations of the feasibility of this technique to fruit flies and the use of radiation for the disinfection of stored grain are in hand.

Plans are in hand to initiate studies on the possibility of complete eradication of some major pests by the release of males sterilised by gamma radiation. The insects most liable to eradication by this technique are melon fly, mango weevil and the coconut beetle.

Plant Physiology

Experiments are being done to study the inter-relationship of nitrogen and phosphorous and the uptake of these elements. One experiment aimed at determining the relative efficiencies of single-super, treble-super and cheap rock phosphate to see whether rock phosphate can be applied directly to the rice plant in place of superphosphates.

Microbiology

The microbiology section of Tandojam deals with the disease-resistance capacity of newly evolved varieties, the mode of action of viruses, and the damage that is caused by the numatodes. Their mode of transmission and survival is an important aspect which needs exploration to save plants from their depredations.

Food Preservation

Attempts are being made to make use of atomic radiation for enhancing the shelf-life of all perishable goods without refrigeration. Research is being carried out in this direction to prevent loss of fresh vegetables, fruits, fish, etc., for want of cold storage facilities.

Health Physics

The health physics sections have been engaged in such activities as airmonitoring for checking any abnormality in atmospheric radio-activity; checking rainwater against contamination by radio-active fallout; and studying upper atmospheric radio-activity.

Family Planning

A group of scientists at the Lahore Atomic Energy Centre has taken up the problem of population control. Research in steroid chemistry has been initiated, and its application in producing oral contraception is under study. Pakistan is rich in herbs which may prove to be a possible source of steroids. The research is aimed at a systematic evaluation of indigenous plants from the viewpiont of steroid content.

Medical Centres

The Atomic Energy Commission has set up Medical Radio-isotope Centres at the Jinnah Central Hospital, Karachi, the Mayo Hospital, Lahore, and the Dacca Medical College Hospital, where radio-isotopes are used for diagnosis and treatment of diseases. Two more Centres at Multan and Hyderabad in West Pakistan and two at Chittagong and Rajshahi in East Pakistan have also been planned.

Fundamental Research and Training

Except in agriculture, where applied problems in the use of radiation sources and radio-isotopes for increased production, evolution of better varieties of crops and pest control have been taken up, the Atomic Energy Centres at Dacca and Lahore are concentrating on basic problems. The programmes in the various subjects are drawn up by constant group discussions, and are evaluated by the Governing Body of the Centre for final approval of the Atomic Energy Commission. Efforts are made to choose fewer problems so as to concentrate study on narrower area rather than scatter all effort in multifarious directions.

Exchange of information is made possible by participation in conferences, seminars, symposia, etc., both at home and abroad, to the exchange of scientific reports from most of the principal nuclear laboratories of the world.

Collaboration with other technical organisations is a usual feature. The University of Dacca, the IAEC, the CENTO Research Institute, Nuclear and Applied Science, and Colombo plan countries, extend help to the Dacca Centre in the form of equipment, research contracts, visiting scientists and fellowships for the workers.

The Lahore Centre has, in addition to other things, conducted training courses for agriculturists, medical practitioners, health physicists, and others. The Centre provides assistance to the university and colleges running post-graduate classes in science, and arranges

lectures, conferences, symposia and seminars. It takes up research problems with other scientific organisations in the country.

Nuclear Physics

The Nuclear Physics laboratory is fitted, among other things, with X-ray and gamma-rays and radiography cameras and is constructing special units for pipe radiography and remote-control gamma radiography.

Most activities in the field of nuclear physics are concentrated around the neutron generator and the sub-critical assembly. Since the commissioning of the neutron generator, several experiments have been started, such as a study of the polarisation of neutrons, determination of farming age in different materials, interference effect of closely spaced foils, fast neutron spectrometry and inelastic scattering of neutrons. An experiment has been designed to study the gamma-gamma correlation from the nuclei emitting two gamma rays.

A small group is also engaged in the study of high energy physics problems. Its work is of international standard. So far five papers on this subject have been published in foreign scientific journals and another five are under preparation.

Nuclear Chemistry

Research in Nuclear Chemistry is divided into two sections, radio chemistry and radiation chemistry.

In the former, work is proceeding on preparation of radio-isotopes, separation of isotopes and development of new techniques for such separation, estimation of trace elements by various methods, including activation analysis and the analysis of radio-active minerals. A programme has been initiated to develop new techniques of separating isotopes and preparing radio-isotopes with the help of neutrons from the neutron generator.

In the radiation chemistry section, research is being conducted on methods of grafting wood, jute and cotton. Experiments have been conducted to use gamma rays as a polymerising agent. Experiments also are in progress to detect the effect of gamma rays or other nuclear radiations on lubricating oils.

Radio-Biology

The radio-biology division is engaged in studying the possibility of using gamma radiation for preserving food. A project study of the inhibition of potato sprouting by gamma rays was started and completed. Experiments are in progress to study the organoleptic properties and changes in the constituents of different grain samples (rice and wheat) irradiated to different doses of gamma rays.

Electronics and Solar Energy

The electronics division has been successful in designing and constructing survey meters of two different types. Design studies on other electronic instruments are in progress. Efforts are being made to use a large paraboloid mirror for running a steam engine of moderate horse-power. Efforts are being made to utilise solar energy by direct conversion to electricity with the help of silicon cells.

Health Physics

The health physics division studies, among other things, health aspects of scientific personnel working with radiation and radiation sources. It undertakes contamination surveys of different research laboratories; advises on decontamination services and modification in the set-up of radiation laboratories. It further provides radio-isotopes required by scientists, and keeps vigil on the radioactivity present in the environment.

Power Planning

The operational features of nuclear power reactors and the low rates of interest on capital investment on conventional power projects in Pakistan, have prompted the Atomic Energy Commission to study the feasibility of nuclear power in certain selected areas, where fuel costs are high or where the expected rise in the load growth may justify the establishment of comparatively big power stations. Government have sanctioned the installation of two nuclear power projects, one in the western zone of East Pakistan, at Rooppur, in the Pabna District, and the other at Karachi.

Rooppur Power Project

The East Pakistan Zone selected consists of 10 districts and has a population of nearly 27 million, yet it has no indigenous conventional sources of power generation to meet the growing demand of industries and agricultural development Projects. The commercial feasibility of its coal deposits is still unknown. The present generating capacity of the zone being only about 67 megawatt and the power generation from imported coal being costlier than oil, nuclear power is found to be the only probable alternative. The load survey shows that the demand, by 1970, will reach 100 MW and to meet it, stations with a total capacity of 155, MW, including the Rooppur nuclear station of 70 MW, (subsequently raised to 140 MW) are planned.

In spite of the fact that the capital cost of the nuclear plant is nearly double the cost of an oil-fired plant, it has been calculated that there will be a net saving of nearly 44 million dollars during 30 years of operation if nuclear plant is substituted for an oil-fired plant. The excess foreign exchange expenditure due to the operation of the nuclear plant will be an insignificant 0.14 million dollars per annum.

Karachi Power Project

The population of Karachi has grown from 300,000 in 1947 to over 2.0 million in 1967, and being the only seaport for West Pakistan, its power demand is constantly growing. The position has been further aggravated by Karachi's growing industrial complex. The only electric generation system of the Karachi Electric Supply Corporation, had an installed capacity of 134 MW at the end of 1962. To raise it to 266 MW, it began construction of another power station at Korangi, with a generating capacity of 132 MW. With all that, it is estimated that another power gap of nearly 100 MW will develop by 1967. After taking into account the feasibility, the cost, the utility and the consumption, a power station

of 132 MW capacity by 1968/69 is considered fully justified. After studying various types of reactors, Government has selected the power reactor concept developed in Canada which uses natural uranium oxide as fuel and heavy water as moderator and cedant. The consideration which lent weight to the Canadian concept is the possibility of discovering natural uranium deposits in Pakistan, failing which, natural uranium can be imported from many countries.

The net saving from the operation of the nuclear plant is calculated to be 15 million dollars over 30 years.

METEORO-LOGICAL SERVICE

At the time of independence in 1947 there were 628 observing stations of different kinds and 1,278 observations were taken in Pakistan every day. To-day the number of observing stations is 1,486 and the number of daily observations is 4,720. The number of forecasting offices has increased from 6 in 1947, to 22 in 1966. On an average more than 1,000 climatological, geophysical and astronomical enquiries are answered by the Department every year about development projects relating to industry, water resources, irrigation, hydro-electricity, agriculture, seismicity, sunset, moonrise, moonset, sighting of the new moon, etc. About 50,000 weather forecasts and warnings are issued to various interests every year.

There are five types of surface meteorological stations.

(a) *Surface Synoptic Stations*, which record and report observations for weather forecasting and warning purposes.

(b) *Aeronautical Meteorological Stations*, which record and report meteorological elements every hour or more often for aviation purposes.

(c) *Climatological Stations*, which record observations at selected synoptic hours for climatological purposes and submit their records to Regional Centres by post at the end of the month.

(d) *Raingauge and Hydrometeorological Stations*, which record only rainfall or snowfall once a day or often or at synoptic hours and send their data by post to the authorities maintaining them.

(e) *Ships Observatories*, which record synoptic weather observations while out at sea and report them for weather forecasting and warning purposes.

All the above observatories record observations at one or more times a day, as fixed by the World Meteorological Organization, on the following parameters:

- Barometric Pressure.
- Direction and speed of the wind.
- Temperature of the air.
- Dew point temperature.
- Humidity.

- Rainfall.
- Visibility.
- Present weather and past weather.
- Amount and type of cloud.
- Height of base of cloud.
- State of sea and swell.

The upper air observations are recorded by stations called Pilot Balloon Stations, where the speed and direction of the wind at various levels of the atmosphere at 00, 06, 12 and 18 hours GMT are recorded by following hydrogen filled balloons with optical tracking instruments called Theodolites.

Some stations monitor observations of temperature, pressure and humidity relayed at various levels of the atmosphere by a small transmitter which is attached to a meteorograph and sent up with balloons, radiosonde stations.

A weather warning radar station is a high powered, land fixed radar designed to locate cyclones, fronts, thunderstorms and areas of precipitation and their movement within a radius of 150 to 200 miles by means of the reflection of radar beams by suspended obstructions. This equipment is being installed at Dacca, Chittagong, Karachi, Sargodha and Cherat.

The "Sferics Observatories" locate disturbances of Thunderstorm activity from 1,500 to 2,000 kms during day and night by means of triangulation methods.

Forecasting

A Regional Forecast Centre is the main forecasting office in the region, keeping 24 hour watch. It collects synoptic meteorological data from specified stations and regions, prepares weather charts 6 times a day, completes the analysis for each hour and prepares prognostic charts for the issue of weather forecasts, heavy rainfall and storm warnings to all interests in the region and weather bulletins for aviation, shipping and ports, public works, railways, agriculture, irrigation, general public, etc. It also issues Regional Weather Summaries. The Regional Forecast Centre at Lahore also issues flood forecasts and warnings for the Indus Basin River area over a special telecommunication net-work. The Centre at Chittagong issues special warnings for north west gales (*Kal-baisakhies*) and cyclonic storms to the general public, revenue officers, police stations, and river ports.

In addition to the Regional Forecast Centre in each Region, forecasting offices are maintained at all airports to provide briefing and documentation facilities for aircraft pilots.

There are arrangements for supply of special weather forecasts. Such forecasts were made in the case of the Tokyo University's Karakoram Expedition (1965), the Kyoto Japanese Karakoram Expedition (1965), and the Pakistan Mountaineering Expedition to scale "Baono Zom Peak" (1965).

The following stations were opened during 1965-66 to carry

out efficient forecasting services as well to cater to the growing needs of aviation interests:

(a) Dependant Meteorological Offices at Nawabshah, Multan, Skardu, Gilgit, Drigh Road, Chitral, Jessore, Ishurdi and Cox's Bazar.

(b) One Wind Finding Radar in West Pakistan.

(c) Pilot Balloon Observatories at Parachinar, Nokkundi, Khuzdar, Barkhan and Chitral.

(d) Rawinsonde Observatories at Chittagong and Gilgit.

(e) Three part-time Observatories in East Pakistan at Bhola, Sandwip and Hatiya.

Equipment

The electronic equipment known as "Weather Facsimile" for the transmission and reception of weather charts was introduced in the Department and test receptions of broadcasts from Guam, Tokyo, Moscow and New Delhi were carried out by the Department in co-operation with an engineer from Germany. It is planned to receive broadcasts of weather charts from foreign forecasting offices as well as to transmit analysed charts for benefit of other forecasting offices in Pakistan.

Geophysics

An Institute of Meteorology and Geophysics was established in 1961. Recognising the need for the development of the Institute, the World Meteorological Organization provided expert services. Five foreign experts arrived under UNESCO and WMO Programme and helped in the organization and setting up of the Institute, which has since been recognized as an International Institute for Tropical Meteorology and Research.

The Institute offers training facilities in all branches of meteorology and allied sciences. The courses are designed to meet the needs of the meteorological services and to provide a sound background for meteorological research.

During 1965-66, the Institute conducted seven courses in various fields of meteorology, attended by 21 officers and 134 staff members including 64 PAF airmen. A total number of about 700 persons have been trained in different courses of meteorology since the Institute was first established.

The Institute is also busy in research on long range and medium range forecasting techniques.

Geophysics

At the time of independence, Pakistan did not inherit any laboratory or observatory meant for the study of geophysics. The first geophysical observatory was established in Pakistan in 1952, at Quetta. Now, there are in all six seismic, six solar radiation, three geomagnetic, one ozone measuring, and one ionospheric observatory functioning in Pakistan. A seismic observatory was established at New Mirpur (Mangla Dam) during 1965-66.

All six seismological observatories are equipped with instruments

for recording teleseisms and near earthquakes, operating satisfactorily and exchanging seismological data with foreign seismological organisation. Epicentres of major earthquakes are located and the positions of seismically active regions marked. Seismic data are telegraphed to major stations, and important earthquakes reported to the Press.

The Institute has been placed as one of the world's seventeen first line seismological stations.

The main magnetic observatory at the Geophysical Institute, Quetta, and another magnetic observatory at Chittagong, function normally, recording the earth's magnetic variations.

Routine monthly bulletins containing character figure, hourly K-indicates and special magnetic phenomena are regularly published.

Collaboration with SUPARCO

Soon after coming into operation of TIROS Weather Satellites, SUPARCO and Pakistan Meteorological Department agreed jointly to sponsor and operate an APT Station in East Pakistan. The APT-System goes a long way in providing efficient warning of impending cyclones affecting the Eastern wing thus providing ample opportunity for precautionary measures by the public.

The Pakistan Meteorological Department participated in the co-ordination committee's meeting on 'Ionospheric Research Programme' held at SUPARCO Headquarters, Karachi, on 23rd December, 1965 and at subsequent meetings held for mutual discussionson the programme, which is aimed at improving radio communication between East and West Pakistan.

DISSEMINATION, DOCUMENTATION AND EXCHANGES

Dissemination

Successful utilisation of the results of scientific research poses many problems. Much scientific work of practical value may be buried in technical papers without being put to use. Measures have to be adopted to prevent this especially as the research output grows. Some of the steps for dissemination of agricultural and industrial researches are described below.

Agricultural Research

The Scientific Commission recommended the following methods of disseminating results of agricultural research, some of them now already in practice:

(a) Every agricultural research institute, research sub-station and experimental farm should have research-extension liaison committees consisting of research and extension personnel. These committees should work out research programmes and arrange for utilisation of results at each level. Research workers should be given ample facilities for field study. Similarly, extension workers should keep in touch with the progress and trends of research.

(*b*) Efforts should be made to enlist the co-operation of leading farmers by persuading them to utilise the results of research in their own farms, so that widespread dissemination of these results by emulation is possible.

(*c*) Extension officers must be as capable and as well-trained scientifically as research workers and should have comparable status. The research organisation and the research men should continue their interest in the problem until the solutions they have reached are actually adopted by farmers.

(*d*) A more purposeful, well-directed effort should be made towards the dissemination of information through the establishment of demonstration farms, prompt publication and visual aids.

(*e*) Efforts should also be made for enlisting the co-operation of Village Organizations and Basic Democracies in extension work.

Industrial Research

Government have constituted Functional Committees in respect of each field of applied research, comprising industrialists representing related industry and the scientists working in each branch of study. These Functional Committees meet once every two months for evaluating the research work in progress. They advise and suggest new problems that may be undertaken and fix priorities in respect of problems with reference to economic importance. These Committees also give suggestions for quick utilisation of the processes evolved by the council. The council has also rendered technical advice to industry both in the public and private sectors, and has already provided solution to about hundred ad-hoc and operational problems.

To reach the country's industries and stimulate interest in science and technology, use is made of various other methods, such as personal visits and contacts, demonstrations, in-plant trials and pilot plant operations, radios, exhibits, etc. Other important activities in this direction include organisation of scientific lectures, symposia, seminars, conferences, science fairs and publication of journals.

To co-ordinate research and industrial activity the Council has set up two cells on industrial economy and industrial liaison.

Documentation

To bridge the gap between research and development, laboratories in Pakistan and the reservoir of scientific and technical information throughout the world, which is doubling itself every 10 or 15 years, the CSIR has established, with the assistance of the UNESCO, the Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) at Karachi, with sub-centres at Dacca and Lahore. This provides facilities for document-reproduction in the form of film and photo-copies of scientific references and translations from various languages into English. PANSDOC also compiles bibliographies in selected fields.

Journals

The research work of the Council and other Organisations is published in the *Pakistan Journal of Scientific & Industrial Research* and *Scientific Research* which are published quarterly in West and East Pakistan respectively. The journal *Science & Industry* is also published by the CSIR and contains articles of technological interest, brief description of processes evolved by CSIR, and other material. Periodical reports of activities are also published. A number of popular science journals, viz. the *Science Chronicle* in English, *Karwan-i-Science* in Urdu and *Purugami Biggan* in Bengali are also published by the Council. The Atomic Energy Commission publishes a monthly journal *Nucleus*.

Liaison and Exchange

All major research organisations in Pakistan maintain close liaison with their counterparts in other countries. This helps them, among other things, to collect scientific information of particular utility to Pakistan. This is done mainly through exchange of literature and mutual visits of scientists. The organisations send their representatives to participate in the international scientific conferences held under the UN and other auspices. Similarly, international conferences are held in Pakistan. Reports, journals and other periodicals are regularly exchanged with a number of countries and about 300 such publications are being received in exchange for journals published in Pakistan.

Pakistan is a member of the British Commonwealth Scientific Organisation (BCSO), which provides a direct link between Pakistan and other Commonwealth countries in matters relating to science and technology.

17. HEALTH

Introductory. State Responsibility; Administration.

Background. Progress in the Early Years; Present Objectives.

Health Services. Doctors; Nurses; Hospitals and Dispensaries; Rural Health Centres.

Control of Diseases. Malaria; Tuberculosis; Cholera; Small-pox; Leprosy; Mental Illness.

Preventative Health Service. Sanitation; Nutrition; Cleanliness; Health Education.

Medical Education. Graduation; Post-graduate Studies; College of Physicians and Surgeons; Nursing; Technicians' Training.

Research . Institutions and Directions of Medical Research in Pakistan; National Pharmacopoeia.

Indigenous Medical Systems. Ayurvedic, Unani and Homoeopathic Systems.

The State assumes full responsibility for public health and the national Five-Year Plans have laid considerable emphasis on the development of health facilities. The current Plan has tripled the previous Plan's expenditure on public health and hygiene. Although, at present, there is no national health service scheme in operation as in some advanced countries, the State is developing facilities at such a rate that, by 1985, it expects that basic medical facilities will have been provided to the entire 190 million which so far as can be foreseen, the population of Pakistan will then number.

Administration

The administration of health is delegated to the provincial governments, and is, to some extent, further delegated to the local bodies. While planning and policy-making are chiefly done at the provincial level, the Centre carries out overall co-ordination of major public health programmes in co-peration with international health agencies. These central functions are conducted by the Health Division of the central Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare and its various branches namely, the Directorate of Central Health Establishments and Stores, the Directorate of Tuberculosis Control, the Malaria Eradication Board, and the Nutrition Directorate. In addition, there are such professional organisations as the Pakistan Medical Council and the Pakistan Nursing Council.

The private sector also plays its part. About 35 per cent of the 16,500 doctors are private practitioners, working either entirely on

their own or in the employment of industrial and commercial establishments. There are private hospitals and clinics, either run by missionary and other philanthropic organizations or on commercial basis.

Early Progress

At the time of independence, health standards in the sub-continent were extremely low, especially so in the parts that now constitute Pakistan. Nutrition conditions and medical facilities were so inadequate that ill-health was common, epidemics were often heard of, and infant mortality was high. Compared with the figures prevailing in developed countries, deaths per thousand were double and infant mortality was five times as high.

In a population of over 75 million which was daily increasing owing to heavy immigration of refugees from India, and with a low level of health, there were a total of only 1,200 registered doctors, and only one full-fledged college to add to this number. There were 15,000 hospital beds with one nurse for every 75 of beds. No pharmaceutical industry or laboratories produced even the basic preventive drugs, such as vaccines, sera and B.C.G. Only about 3 million people in towns had a protected water supply.

An attack on all these problems was soon initiated. There were more doctors, nurses and hospital beds, two medical colleges were quickly added, laboratories for the production of vaccines, sera and B.C.G. were set up, and a malaria control programme was begun. However, the rate of progress was not commensurate with the leeway to be made up. The First Five-Year Plan (1955-60) could, for instance, achieve only about 50 per cent of its targets in the health sector. The pace had, therefore, to be greatly speeded up and the Second Plan (1960-65) exceeded a number of its health targets especially in the number of doctors, nurses, clinics and medical colleges. Numbers of hospitals and hospital beds are still being increased and health centres are being set up all over the countryside. The control of major diseases, and eradication programmes have been under way. The Third Plan has gone much further than its predecessors and has made three times the allocation to the development of health facilities. The aim, now, is to provide adequate health protection for the entire population by 1985. The direction of effort has been spelled out as follows:

Present Objectives

- to maximise each child's chances of survival at birth;
- to increase its average life expectancy;
- to ensure that it enjoys good health throughout its lifetime.

More specifically, the Third Plan has outlined the principles of action as follows:

(*a*) ensuring availability of the most essential health services to all members of the community;

(*b*) development of an integrated health service with greater emphasis on public health;

(*c*) development of the essential framework of a comprehensive and regionalized health organization, especially in the rural areas, through which all health programmes can be implemented and maintained;

(*d*) recognition of the fact that certain diseases, such as malaria and tuberculosis, require special campaign-type health programmes, until a satisfactory comprehensive framework of health services has been built to facilitate their integration;

(*e*) adoption of special health measures for the protection of selected groups like children, mothers, industrial workers through material and child health services, school health services, nutritional programmes and industrial health programmes;

(*f*) simultaneous development of training programmes to man various services and carry out essential programmes;

(*g*) taking of special measures designed to increase materially the supply of medical personnel in rural and semi-urban areas;

(*h*) consolidation and gradual expansion of curative services;

(*i*) establishment of an efficient statistical and record-keeping system, not only for purposes of planning but also for evaluating effectiveness of various health activities;

(*j*) provision of guidance and leadership in the improvement of environmental sanitation and nutritional standards;

(*k*) adoption of special measures for control of population;

(*l*) active participation by local communities in the formulation and implementation of health programmes.

HEALTH SERVICES

Doctors

At the end of 1966, there were about 16,600 doctors in the country for a population of 105 million—in other words, an average of one doctor for every 6,000 people. The actual figures, however, vary between one for 700 people in the larger urban areas to one for 10 to 20 thousand in villages. The urban area ratio is more near the country-wide average in advanced countries. The United Kingdom, for instance, has one doctor for every 940 people. The annual output of doctors in Pakistan is now over 1,000 from twelve medical colleges throughout the country. By 1970, it is expected there will be nearly 20,000 doctors, that is, one for every 6,000 people.

Nurses

The number of nurses at the end of 1965 was over 4,300, that is, an average of one for every 25,000 people, or one for nine hospital beds. The 26 nursing training centres in the country are producing about 350 nurses per year.

Hospitals

There are about 36,000 hospital beds, that is, one bed for every 3,000 people. Their number is likely to increase beyond 48,000 by the end of 1970. Priority in expansion is being given to hospitals

at tehsil and subdivisional headquarters which serve the village population of the country—by far the preponderating part.

Hospital service includes accommodation and food provision in addition to diagnostic and treatment facilities. There are also maternity and children sections, and infectious disease units. Specialised treatment for complicated diseases is available in bigger hospitals and specialised clinics.

There are charitable hospitals and clinics, run mostly by religious orders. Numerous privately maintained health institutions in bigger towns, mostly on very modern and efficient lines, are run on a commercial basis.

There is an average of six resident doctors in each government hospital and the services of consultants are also available. Treatment in these hospitals is free of charge.

Dispensaries

Dispensaries provide the best part of the medical attention for the people. They have been set up in populous parts of the country with an average of one for every 50,000 of the population. They are well-stocked with general medicines and doctors posted here are also available for consultation at nominal fee.

Rural Health Centres

Most of the population lives in villages and therefore any health programme has to give primacy to rural areas, but a comprehensive rural health programme was not started until 1960. Since then it has been earnestly pursued. A network of health centres is being created in the villages and by 1965, about 200 such centres had been set up. It is proposed to raise the number of rural health centres by 600 during the current Plan period.

Each of these centres consists of a primary unit with three sub-centres which together provide medical aid for a population of some 50,000. The primary unit is manned by both a male and female doctor, a health visitor, health laboratory technicians and other auxiliary staff. Each sub-centre consists of a compounder dresser, a nurse-dai, a peon-cum-medicine carrier, a health assistant and a cleaner. As a whole, the centre is well equipped for facilities of medical treatment, maternity and child welfare, family planning, environmental sanitation, control of epidemics and infectious diseases, health education and also compilation of vital statistics for the region served.

Table 54 (p. 467) gives the position of personnel, and some of the institutions as at the end of the Second Plan period in 1965, and as envisaged for 1970 in the Third Plan.

CONTROL OF DISEASES

Pakistan suffers from an incidence of some of the more common diseases which more advanced peoples have conquered, while others which are a legacy of industrial activity.

However, it is ensured that there is no exportation of diseases

from Pakistan, by strict observance of international health sanitary regulation. Airports and seaports dealing with international traffic have regular health departments.

TABLE 54
PERSONNEL AND INSTITUTIONS UNDER THE PLANS

	1965	1970
Doctors		
Number	15,600	19,800
Ratio	1:7,400 people	1:6,600 people
Medical Colleges	12	14
Nurses		
Number	3,600	5,400
Ratio	1:9 hospital beds	1:8 hospital beds
	1:32,000 people	1:24,100 people
Hospital Beds		
Number	35,500	48,300
Ratio	1:3,200 people	1:2,300 people
Rural Health Centres		
Number	200	860
Population covered	10 million	50 million
Lady Health Visitors		
Number	1,047	2,750
Ratio	1:115,000 people	1:50,900 people
Training Centres for Lady Visitors	8	10
T.B. Clinics		
Number	96	181
Beds	2,500	3,450
Ratio	1:50 T.B. deaths	1:35 T.B. deaths.

Malaria Malaria is one of the common diseases. According to one report, every year some 20 million people experience attacks leaving them wholly incapacitated for six working days and hinders their full working capacity for a minimum period of two months. This means that, on average, some 960 million man-work-hours are wasted every year, and 1,200 million man-work-days are utilised only partially. The death toll from malaria was estimated to be 250,000 annually.

The fight against malaria was begun very early, but a malaria eradication programme was started only in 1961, with a 14-year target. The current Five-Year Plan has earmarked for this programme one-third (Rs 272 million) of the total allocation to health sector. The foreign exchange requirements, and some technical assistance, are being provided by the United States. The World Health Organisation (WHO) is also giving technical support. The implementation of the programme is supervised by an autonomous central policy-making

organisation called the Malaria Eradication Board. There are also two provincial boards which are responsible for actual execution.

The country has been divided into regions, zones, sectors and sub-sectors and the operations are being carried out systematically so as eventually to cover the whole country. Each zone has roughly a million population. The operation begins with the recruitment and training of staff for a particular area, which then conducts a house-to-house census to establish the endemicity and areas of the disease. This 'preparatory' phase lasts for a year. During the 'attack phase', every roofed structure in the surveyed area is sprayed just before the commencement of the transmission season of malaria. All this time, malaria cases are traced by house-to-house search and given treatment. This phase lasts for three to four years. Two to three years after this, although the spraying is stopped, the search for malaria cases and their treatment continues. This is the 'consolidation' phase. After the disease has thus been wiped out from the area, the maintenance of the results accomplished becomes the responsibility of local health services.

Upto June 1966, 78.1 million people in East and West Pakistan have been protected against the disease. House-to-house investigations have shown that, while the operation was in progress, the incidence of malaria fell substantially by 20 to 30 per cent every year, so much so that in some areas, as in Dinajpur district, the disease has already been eradicated and the consolidation phase has begun. This means that each house is visited by the anti-malaria staff, at least once a month, for another three years or so to check any recurrence, and the reason.

It is expected that, by 1970 over 20 million people will be totally free from malaria, while for another 45 million the disease will occur very rarely, and, for the rest of the population, the 'parasitic index' will decline from the present 25 per cent to less than 4 per cent.

Tuberculosis

In the absence of exact figures, a rough estimate puts the open cases of tuberculosis in the country at over 100,000. While it is realized that eradication of the disease is dependent on the improvement in general living standards, curative facilities are being provided. A twenty-year master plan for effective control is under preparation. Meanwhile, the B.C.G. vaccination programme is being enhanced. Started in the country in 1949, the B.C.G. campaign has so far tested 57.07 million people for tuberculosis; and 25.41 million have been vaccinated. It must be remembered, however, that vaccination affords protection only for three to four years.

There are at present more than 100 clinics in the country and the number is to be raised to 181 by 1970. The aim is to have at least one clinic for every 100,000 of the population. This will mean some 1,900 clinics, a target to be reached by 1985. Although the main emphasis now is on the expansion of B.C.G. vaccination and on clinical facilities, some increase in hospital beds is also considered necessary. There are now about 2,800 hospital beds but, by the end of

the Third Plan, the number of beds for T.B. patients is likely to be raised to about 3,500. Two 100-bedded research hospitals are also to be set up at Dacca and Rawalpindi.

At these two cities, a pilot T.B. project was started some years back. Under this, people are examined for T.B. infection, and those found suffering are provided domiciliary treatment. The aim meanwhile is to find out the most effective method for the treatment and control of the disease. The future approach towards its control is likely to be based on the experience gained from these two pilot projects.

Cholera

Cholera is another preventable disease, generally endemic in East Pakistan, where until recently its annual toll was in the order of 25,000. About 100,000 are afflicted in the country every year, most of them in the Eastern province and of these 30 to 50 per cent succumb in the absence of proper medical treatment. According to one account, most epidemiologists regard East Pakistan and the neighbouring Indian State of West Bengal as the historic seed-bed of cholera, where the disease is present at all times and from where some of the greatest epidemics have been recorded in the past.

In 1960, a Cholera Research Laboratory was established at Dacca in collaboration with the SEATO, the assistance coming from the United States and the United Kingdom. It helped to bring down the mortality rate in hundreds of trial cases from 30 to 50 per cent to only two per cent. In its 20-bed ward, the laboratory treated over 1,000 cases, curing 99 per cent of them. It has evolved new methods of treatment, such as antibiotic therapy, and is further simplifying it so that treatment may be possible in primitive as well as sophisticated surroundings.

The laboratory's work has two main aspects:

- to study the environment of the disease and its habit patterns, the ways of living and methods of sanitation of the people; and
- to conduct clinical research and determine whether physical differences make some people more susceptible to cholera than others, and what physiological changes occur on contracting cholera.

Household surveys have been conducted in Dacca in pursuance of these aspects of study. In addition, tests are being carried out on the effectiveness of various types of vaccines. Another enquiry relates to the specific causes of the disease, and on such aspects of it as, for example, water serves as a reservoir for cholera organisms.

Smallpox

Smallpox is another endemic disease of East Pakistan. To eradicate it, a pilot project was started in the highly affected districts of Comilla and Faridpur in 1960. This was followed by a two-year eradication programme with encouraging results. The incidence in 1965 was 316 cases of attacks and 142 deaths, against 15,048 cases of attacks and 9,508 deaths in 1959, which shows a drop of 97 per cent and 98 per cent respectively in incidence of attacks and deaths.

Leprosy

The Third Plan estimates 100,000 cases of leprosy in the country, the majority of which are in East Pakistan. About one-fourth of these cases are considered infectious.

The services of a WHO expert have been obtained for control of leprosy in East Pakistan. Under the Leprosy Control Project, four operational areas have been established in that Wing. To these operational areas, four mobile clinics have been attached which provide treatment at 199 different places. In addition, there are two static clinics at Dacca and Nilphamari, each with 20 beds and an outpatient department. Missionary hospitals and private clinics also function in the province. At present there are over 400 beds in leprosy asylums and hospitals.

In West Pakistan there is a well-equipped hospital at Karachi with 200 beds. It is run by the Karachi Municipal Corporation and receives a substantial grant from the central government. District Balakot has an asylum with 50 beds. Some hospitals and dispensaries have treatment facilities for lepers and charitable hospitals provide 221 beds.

Two more rehabilitation centres are to start functioning in East Pakistan by the middle of 1967, one at Sylhet and the other at Nilphamari in Rajshahi. The centre at Nilphamari will provide preventive and curative treatment facilities to 160 patients. It will consist of 40 houses, one for four patients. This centre will eventually be transformed into a constructive surgery centre attached to the Nilphamari static clinic.

Mental Illness

The exact incidence of mental illness in the country is not known, but the figure, especially owing to the rapid pace of industrialisation and urbanisation, is assumed to be fairly high. The incidence of psychiatric morbidity is estimated to number 160,000. There are at present five mental hospitals in the country with about 2,000 beds. In addition, some of the general hospitals also have arrangements for preliminary treatment.

PREVENTIVE HEALTH SERVICE

Preventive health service, which means provision of hygienic and sanitary conditions, proper water supply and drainage, and suitable nutrition and inoculation, is almost entirely the responsibility of the state, usually defrayed through the agency of municipal and other local bodies.

The pre-independence health survey and development committee, known as the Bhore Committee, after studying the problems for 26 months reported, in 1946, that public health, except for the curative part, had been neglected throughout. Since independence, efforts have been made to make up for the deficiency and the major part of Five-Year plan expenditures on health have been allocated purely to the preventive part. The proportion in the Third Plan is 60 per cent.

Sanitation

The biggest single cause of morbidity is said to be the absence of proper environmental sanitation. It is estimated that, in East Pakistan, nearly 50 per cent of all illness is attributable to gastro-intestinal disorders, which thrive on insanitary conditions. Permanent eradication of these requires arrangements for proper disposal of sewage and the provision of safe drinking water. All new settlements are being created with particular attention to these factors, and necessary improvements are also being made in old areas.

Nutrition

In certain parts of Pakistan the caloric intake of the people is still below that recommended by the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO). The composition of the diet is not always balanced, and protective food stuff is lacking. This under nutrition makes the people vulnerable to disease.

A directorate has been set up in the Ministry of Health to carry out a country-wide survey of nutrition position. There are, in East Pakistan, the nutrition research laboratory, and the food, water and drug laboratory at Dacca. In West Pakistan, a food analysis and nutrition research laboratory has been set up at Lahore, while two others are being established at Quetta and Sukkur.

The first round of a nutrition survey was started in the Chittagong Hill Tracts in East Pakistan in 1961-62. A total population of 94,000—86,000 rural and 8,000 urban—covering 94 villages and 54 union councils were sampled. Another 12,000 persons were surveyed for levels of food consumption and biochemical level of nutrients in blood. The survey indicated that the magnitude of malnutrition is huge and the remedy lies in balanced food consumption. A similar survey is now in progress in West Pakistan.

Cleanliness

During 1966, the Government of Pakistan launched a national cleanliness programme. All mass communication media were geared to spreading the message in various ways, and local authorities were instructed to set about ensuring cleanliness in cities and towns. Directions were given about disposal of refuse, control of insects and vermin, personal and environmental (within house, office and in streets) cleanliness, and about fresh air in houses and workplaces, pure and clean food and pure and clean water supply.

Local bodies make house-to-house survey to ensure that public latrines, surface drains, and dustbins are provided at suitable places; that spraying of disinfectants and insecticides and removal of garbage was regularly carried out; and that derelict reservoirs and ditches are cleaned of water hyacinth and other weeds to prevent breeding of mosquitoes and flies. Mobile inspection units check food stuff in restaurants and market places. Local cleanliness committees were formed to ensure cleanliness of localities, which the sanitary inspectors and other health staff also visit regularly.

Health Education

Most deficiencies in public health diminish as awareness about requirements develop. There is a Directorate of Health Education

in East Pakistan, and a Bureau of Health Education in West Pakistan. The latter has a network of regional offices which carry health education to millions of villagers. The government's efforts are supplemented by voluntary organisations. There is an elaborate scheme for promoting health education further, making it an integral part of all health programmes as well as of routine health activity throughout the country.

MEDICAL EDUCATION

Graduation

As we have already said Pakistan started with just one full-fledged medical college in the country. Now, there are 12 of them producing over a thousand medical graduates every year. Two more are being added, and those existing are being further strengthened. All colleges have a teaching hospital. There is a separate medical college for women, the Fatima Jinnah Medical College, Lahore which admits foreign students.

These colleges offer a five-year teaching and training course after which graduation is offered in medicine and surgery. Medical graduation in Pakistan is more or less equivalent in standard with graduation of other countries.

Post-graduate Studies

There is a post-graduate medical centre at Karachi which offers courses in basic sciences and some of the clinical subjects. It gives training for M.Sc and Ph.D. degrees in basic subjects and F.C.P.S. (Pak) in clinical subjects. A post-graduate medical centre has also been set up at Dacca for similar post-graduate courses. A school of tropical medicines is to be set up at Dacca shortly. There is an institute of hygiene and preventive medicine at Lahore. Courses are also given at Lahore and Dacca respectively to train medical graduates for primary Fellowship of the Royal Colleges of Surgeons of England and Edinburgh. These post-graduate training facilities will meet most of the country's present need for teaching and research personnel.

College of Physicians and Surgeons

A college of physicians and surgeons has recently been established to examine post-graduate students in clinical subjects. The subjects taught for the Fellowship and the Membership are medicine, surgery, gynaecology and obstetrics, pediatrics with other specialities also. The examination will be conducted on the pattern of the British Royal College.

Nursing

Twenty-six nursing schools have been established in large hospitals where the entrants are given a course for three years. These schools have facilities for further training in other specialities, such as mid-wifery and gynaecology. Recently, a new nursing school has started functioning in Rawalpindi. It will impart three years' training in general nursing and one year in mid-wifery. A further course is provided in the colleges of nursing for one year nursing teaching, and another for administration.

Technicians and Training

A course has been devised to train para-medical personnel in laboratory methods, so that they can man various technical departments and be of assistance in research work. They will specialise in such branches as radiotherapy, physiotherapy, blood bank, and health laboratories activities. A beginning has been made at the Karachi post-graduate centre, where the first batch of students has completed training.

Besides this, there are training schools for health technicians, sanitary inspectors, and rural health inspectors at the institute of public health, Dacca, and at Bahawalpur and Quetta. Short-term technician courses are being conducted at the Institute of Hygiene and Preventive Medicines at Lahore. A school of medical technology in Islamabad trains laboratory technicians.

RESEARCH

The Pakistan Medical Research Council was constituted by a government resolution in 1953 and reorganised, in 1962, on the advice of the Medical Reforms Commission. The aims set for it are to organise, co-ordinate and promote reserach in various fields of medical and public health with a view to public benefit and to the advancement of medical science. It has now over fifty research schemes in hand. Eminent scholars are busy finding new lines of aetiology of disease and their treatment.

Other important bodies carrying on research in various aspects of curative and preventive medicine are the Cholera Institute at Dacca, the Jinnah Post-graduate Medical Centre, and the Institute of Public Health at Dacca. The Jinnah Post-graduate Centre currently has seven major medical research projects sponsored by various governmental and medico-social indigenous and foreign organisations.

The National Health laboratories being established in Islamabad are to conduct research into subjects, such as public health, nutrition, drugs and indigenous herbs. The Laboratories will have a separate Drug Research Institute with divisions for microbiology, pharmacology, clinical pharmacology, pharmaceutical chemistry and pharmacognosy. The Institute will also have a hospital attached to it for clinical trials. To start with, it will conduct investigation on drugs of indigenous origin. When any medicine is found therapeutically effective, a pilot plant for its industrial production for home consumption and export will be set up.

National Pharmacopoeia

Until now Pakistan had been following the pharmacopoeias of the United Kingdom and the United States. It has now been decided that the country's own pharmacopoeia should be compiled in accordance with local conditions. There is a number of indigenous drugs, formulas and prescriptions which are not even widely known within the country. Although botanically different from their foreign counterparts, some of these have the same active constituents so that they can be used as cheap and effective substitutes for imported drugs. On account of climatic differences, the drugs belonging to the soil

may well suit the people better. It is also believed that temperamental and racial factors contribute to a better response to local drugs. To enable the country to import drugs and medicines from competitively cheaper sources, which now include China, the USSR and Japan, it seems that a national pharmacopoeia is desirable.

This, therefore, is now under compilation. A Committee headed by the Director-General of Health was set up in 1964 for the purpose. This compilation is expected to contain a list of useful medicines and compounds, especially those of indigenous origin, the manner of preparing them, the weights and measures by which they are to by prepared and mixed, their dose range, and, where necessary, methods of standardization. The basis of inclusion will be therapeutic usefulness.

INDIGENOUS SYSTEMS OF MEDICINE

The indigenous systems of medicine, such as *ayurvedic*, *unani* and homoeopathy cater to the needs of a large proportion of the population. They are of special importance in rural and other remote areas where quialified doctors are not available. Government has accorded recogniton to these systems, and is taking steps to regulate the activities of the practitioners of these systems.

Under the Unani, Ayurvedic and Homoeopathic Practitioners' Act, 1965, the practitioners of these systems are required to register themselves with their respective boards. The first such boards consist of nominated members, but after a three-year term most of them would be replaced by elected members with five-year tenure.

The Tibbi Registration Board has so far approved 24 *unani* and 17 *ayurvedic* medical oragnisations and registered 315 medical practitioners of these systems. Similarly, the Board of Homoeopathic System of Medicines has approved ten homoeopathic colleges in Pakistan and has interviewed several applicants for registration. By November 1966, it had issued 4,500 registration certificates to homoeopathic practitioners.

Under the new impetus given to them by legislation, all these systems are drawing up plans for their reorganization, administration, development of syllabi and courses of their education, and for promoting research in their fields. The Board of Unani and Ayurvedic systems has initiated a scheme for a pharmacopoeia of these systems. The teaching institutions of all the three systems will be holding a four year course for matriculates.

An Institute of Health and Tibbi Research has recently been set up in Karachi. It will provide medical facilities, and will make efforts through various research units to promote traditional systems of medicine and bring them in line with modern knowledge relating to the various disciplines of the basic sciences. The institute is sponsored by the Hamdard National Foundation. It has an advisory board of 27 members.

18. FAMILY PLANNING

The Problem

Programme Objectives. Third Plan; Perspective Plan.

The Strategy. Resistance to Family Planning; Motivation; Availability of Services; Dependability of Methods.

Organization. Central Council; Provincial Boards; District Boards; Thana/Union Councils; *Dais* and Supervisors; Participation of Medical Personnel; Inspection; Evaluation; Research and Testing; Foreign Assistance.

Training. Procedure; Training Programme of 1965-66.

Performance During, 1965-66. Recruitment of Personnel; Establishment of Clinics; Coil Insertion; Distribution of Contraceptives.

The Problem

The population of Pakistan, estimated at over 110 million in mid-1967, exerts a heavy pressure on productive resources. Unemployment and under-employment account for at least a fifth of the labour force; 45 per cent of the population (against 20 to 30 per cent in western countries) is below the age of fifteen, showing the potential of a further increase in the future labour force, and a high dependency burden on the present. In East Pakistan, where agriculture absorbs a very high proportion of the population, a cultivator's average holding is 3½ acres; in urban areas, dwelling units are about a million short of existing needs and over four-fifths of the country's population is illiterate.

Not only is the population large; it is increasing at a very rapid pace. The present birth rate is 50 per 1,000 persons. With improvement in health conditions reducing the mortality rate to 20 per 1,000, the net increase in population is in the order of 30 per 1,000, or 3 per cent per annum.

Such a rate of population expansion absorbs much of the increase of produce brought about by economic development.

Further growth in population becomes, in this context, an alarming prospect. It has accelerated to an estimated 2.6 per cent and is still rising. It is responsible for a marked dilution in the benefit of all other effort to raise the living standard, leaving a vast body of common people very nearly just where they were. National income rose by 28 per cent from 1950 to 1960 but this was virtually offset by population growth so that per capita income increased by only seven rupees in the years. During the next five years, 1960-65, the rate of economic growth was 4½ per cent per annum but more than two per cent of it was absorbed in population increase, thus still keeping the daily per capita income more or less at the old low level.

The rate of annual economic growth during the Third Plan is estimated at five to six per cent but the present level of increase in per capita income can be maintained only if there is a substantial reduction in birth rate.

Programme Objectives

It has been considered necessary to limit birth by at least five to six million during 1965-70, or otherwise to reduce the annual birth rate from 50 to 40 per thousand. This will enable the country—

(*a*) to avoid imbalance in the age structure of the population;
(*b*) to obtain self-sufficiency in food by 1970; and
(*c*) to maintain the present and planned level of increase in per capita income.

It is, therefore, proposed, by 1970, to include most of 20 million fertile couples in Pakistan, with the Family Planning Programme.

Similarly, for the Perspective Plan period (1965-85), which aims, among other things, at tripling the per capita income and achieving universal literacy, the programme is to achieve a decline in birth rate from 55 to 35 per thousand.

Strategy

In a traditional society like Pakistan's, there is, initially, strong resistance to the idea of birth control, or family planning. Apart from the fact that it is considered unethical, there are several other reasons that come in the way of easy acceptance.

(*a*) Children are consisdered an economic asset.
(*b*) The belief still lasts that many must be born for a few to survive.
(*c*) It is felt that the more children there are, especially sons, the greater is the security against old age.
(*d*) Children, it is thought, reinforce the bond between the parents.
(*e*) There is a natural shyness about conjugal matters, and it comes in the way of seeking information or of applying it.
(*f*) Access to contraceptives means some expenditure, which few of the poorer classes feel can afford.
(*g*) Contraceptives have to be simple and effective as well as cheap. Difficult or complex methods lead to inexact usage. Ineffectiveness of the method, either due to technical defect or inexact application, undermines the will to practise it.

However, the popular attitude is slowly but surely changing. This is partly due to the educational campaign launched by government agencies concerned and partly to the wisdom inevitably imparted by the changing pace of life in the country. Studies conducted by various research and evaluation units, have shown that the people, in rural as well as urban areas, are beginning to accept as desirable, some control on the size of their families.

Motivation

However, people are still generally shy and fear to make a deci-

sion. A first need, therefore, is a continuing and effective educational and motivational programme tailored to local conditions, cultural norms, levels of education and maturity of the target couples. Because of a low literacy percentage, Press and written publicity cannot suffice. Motivation here must have an individual basis. It proceeds well by word of mouth and the satisfied practitioner will help the diffusion process. Accordingly, it has been thought that thousands of local women (mostly midwives) should be appointed organisers to work directly on the target women at the grass roots level. The appointees will already be familiar with their clients, understanding their cultural and sociological background. With training in methodology and approach they could achieve more success in imparting information on family planning, selling conventional contraceptives, referring cases for clinical contraception where necessary and following up individual problems.

Secondly, it was thought necessary not just to motivate individual disposition, but also to create a general conducive climate of opinion. In this an approach to males is also necessary. In woman-to-woman dissemination, the appeal in physiological terms is effective, but it must have a socio-economic slant in dealing with males.

The importance of mass media of communication cannot be minimised. They break through the psychological barriers of inhibition and bring the subject right into the open. Proper coverage in the Press and carefully designed bill boards, posters and pamphlets, arouse the interest. The majority of the people may not be able to read the script, but a new sign would not go unnoticed. Thus suitable techniques, with local tinge given to communication materials, will convey the message.

Availability of Services

All efforts in the field of education, motivation and communication will be wasted if adequate services, both clinical and other are not developed alongside the family planning educational programme. Supplies of conventional contraceptives through all possible channels right down to village and hamlet must maintain an uninterrupted flow. Arrangements for mobile clinical services at a given place and date have to be co-ordinated with the availability of target women accepting them.

It is not only important that the supplies of conventional contraceptives should be enough, but it is also important that a choice of methods is offered to the people as "no single method will satisfy everyone".

Dependability of Methods

Again, it is not enough that supply and choice should be adequate but they must be dependable. A satisfied client is the best publicity. A system of checks has to be laid at all levels to ensure quality. Products before despatch to the points of destination must be checked.

Organisation

Central Council

A country-wide network has been established to put the programme through. Decentralisation is a necessary objective in its administration, so that there is a direct and widespread line of communication with the mass of the people.

At the top there is a Central Family Planning Council, headed by the Health Minister, and run chiefly by a Family Planning Commissioner, who is its Secretary and the principal executive. The Central Health Secretary is the Vice-Chairman. It is concerned with policy-making, co-ordination of activities, assessment and evaluation of overall performances, implementation of the scheme by the provinces, and research.

Provincial Boards

In the provinces, there are similar provincial Family Planning Boards, headed by the respective provincial Health Ministers. They are responsible for the implementation of the scheme, and the administrative functions connected therewith and in particular for the training programme.

Commissioners

Next, are the Commissioners of the division who are responsible for co-ordination at the regional levels.

District Boards

Further down the line, are District Family Planning Boards, with the Deputy Commissioner of the district as Chairman and including the District Health Officer, the Medical Superintendent/Civil Surgeon, Assistant Director of Basic Democracies, Publicity-cum-Executive Officer and two suitably qualified ladies interested in this work. Representatives of relevant departments in the district are also co-opted for any particular aspect of the scheme. The Boards are responsible for the physical steps necessary to implement the Programme in the district, including the following:

(*a*) setting up of clinics and mobile units with technical, administrative and publicity personnel and material;
(*b*) supervision of the work of Thana/union councils which are agencies more directly dealing with the people;
(*c*) appointment of lady doctors, rural health visitors and trained midwives as *thana/tehsil* family planning advisers;
(*d*) arrangements for suitable facilities for the training programmes fixed by the provincial Boards;
(*e*) registration of village *dais*, i.e. midwives, and all available and suitable lady doctors, health visitors, trained midwives and private medical practitioners for—
- supplying conventional contraceptives; and/or
- coil insertion.

(*f*) ensuring distribution of conventional contraceptives, so that those are available at the door-step of people everywhere, through village *dais*, shopkeepers, hospitals and clinics.

(*g*) publicity campaigning with a predominantly local tinge;
(*h*) administrative and operational control over the implementation of the programme in the districts;
(*i*) collection of statistics and information to help evaluation and implementation.

Thana/Union Councils

Thana Councils in East Pakistan and Union Councils in West Pakistan perform such of the above functions as are entrusted to them by the District Family Planning Board.

In particular, they—

(*a*) ensure registration of midwives or other suitable female, as *dais* for the programme, and attendance at training centres;
(*b*) issue conventional contraceptives for distribution to village *dais*, shopkeepers and other private individual institutions in the villages, as well as educational material;
(*c*) popularise the use of contraceptives through appropriate local media of publicity;
(*d*) supervise the performance of the agencies entrusted with distribution of conventional contraceptives.

A *Thana* Family Planning Officer tours the villages to disseminate information and motivate the public, guides, supervises and assists the village *dais* and other agents in their work. He follows up and documents cases and collects data for promoting imprcvement, and he advises the higher Family Planning authorities (including Research Units) to this end.

Dais and Supervisors

The *dais* (or family planning organisers) form the basis of the whole programme, because it is they who come in direct contact with the people. They are responsible not only for contraceptives distribution but also, if they have been trained for it, IUD insertion. They help to motivate people, inspire confidence among them, remove their doubts and hesitations.

They have also to follow up individual cases. They help the supervising agencies obtain necessary articles of each mahalla (locality).

To co-ordinate the supply of contraceptives with the volume, time and place of potential demands, and to ensure uninterrupted flow, there are energetic young men, called supervisors. There is at present one for every 30 *dais*.

Medical Personnel & Inspection

Active participation of the medical and para-medical personnel has been ensured by monetary incentives and organisational mechanism (such as provision for their transport and camping in outlying areas). Since it is not possible to have a sufficient number of them on a whole time basis, about 1,500 work at present time on a part-time basis.

The reporting system is quick and reliable. Inspections have been designed at all levels and they take place according to prescribed

frequency and a given pattern.

Evaluation

A close watch is maintained on performance by continuous collection of statistics at their evaluation units. Two Evaluation Units, one for each province, two independently manned Research-cum-Evaluation Centres, and the headquarters of the Pakistan Family Planning Council follow up, appraise, and guide the action programme with the objectivity of independent agencies. Each Evaluation Unit has a director, a medical officer, a health education officer, a tabulator and five interviewers.

Research & Testing

The National Research Institute of Family Planning, in conjunction with the Jinnah Postgraduate Medical Centre, carries out studies in basic and functional research on different aspects of Family Planning. Besides clinical investigation, they also undertake sociological and demographic research. The Institute tests products for quality before their despatch to main stores and samples are sent to the Institute for checking.

The Sweden-Pakistan Family Welfare Project provides clinical and motivational services mainly for prototype training and "action research". Its units are located in the Communication Section of the National Research Institute of Family Planning and at Hyderabad, Lahore, Chittagong and Dacca.

Foreign Assistance

Apart from Swedish assistance to the Welfare project noted above, the East Pakistan Research and Evaluation Centre is assisted by the University of California. The West Pakistan Research and Evaluation Centre is assisted by the University of John Hopkins. The Population Council and the Ford Foundation have helped by loaning the services of experts and in meeting requirements for equipment. Help has also come from US-AID and UNICEF.

Training

The training of personnel is an important part of the programme. First, courses are held for trainers. Thereafter, participating teams, consisting of representatives of the various departments involved (medical, administrative and motivational) are given training at all levels in the field, according to a carefully prepared training programme.

Programme of 1965-66

The training programmes of medical and para-medical personnel are meant especially to acquaint trainees with clinical contraception and also to familiarise them with methods of motivation, and distribution of conventional contraceptives.

The quality of recruitment and training is evaluated by an independent team.

Some of the details of the training programmes held during 1965-66 are as follows:

(a) 150 lady doctors, lady health visitors and trained midwives

from each Province were given 10 days' training in family planning techniques and motivational aspects. These medical and para-medical personnel then trained lady doctors, lady health visitors and midwives in their respective *tehsils/thanas*.

(*b*) A 14-day training course was prescribed for planning officials in both the Wings. The training was given at district headquarters, and in East Pakistan at six different training centres.

(*c*) In East Pakistan, thana Family Planning Officers trained their male and female assistants; in West Pakistan, Family Planning officials trained the union council members.

(*d*) A training course of three-week duration was conducted for village *dais* at each thana and union council.

Performance

Recruitment

The five-year family planning scheme was approved on first June, 1965 and was launched at the beginning of the financial year, on first July, 1965. Initially it had been hoped that it would be possible to complete all preliminary work of recruitment and training of personnel before first July, 1965 so that the scheme would be in actual operation at the beginning of the financial year 1965-66. However, this objective was unfortunately not fully realised.

TABLE 55
FAMILY PLANNING PERSONNEL

	East Pakistan	*West Pakistan*
District Publicity-cum-Executive Officers	10	23
Family Planning Supervisors/Thana Family Planning Officers	240	645
Medical and Para-medical personnel	410	768
Dais.	17,034	12,416

Source: *Family Planning Council*

Before the trained personnel could start field work, the hostilities with India intervened so that the actual implementation of the programme did not start until October, 1965. In spite of these, and other difficulties, family planning has made rapid progress.

Clinics

The scheme provides for the establishment of 59 whole time urban clinics (16 in East Pakistan and 37 in West Pakistan), and 718 part-time clinics (400 in East Pakistan and 318 in West Pakistan). These clinics concentrate mainly on coil insertion. The part-time clinics are housed in existing health institutions and are meant for the use of family planning doctors. Each whole-time urban clinic has one lady doctor, one health visitor, one family planning counsellor

and one female medical attendant.

Coil Insertion

The scheme aims at 1½ million IUD insertions and 90,000 vasectomies/ligations from 1965-66 to 1969-70. There were over 250,000 IUD's during the first year of the programme. Since then, the monthly rate exceeds 50,000. Coil service and material are provided free of charge.

Conventional Contraceptives

Contraceptives of all sorts, including condoms, foam tablets, durafoam, jelly, emko diaphragms, were provided and sold at subsidised prices. For the distribution of conventional contraceptives, all possible sources of sale and distribution were utilised including *dais*, shop-keepers, chemists. The sale of these contraceptives has now gone up to about 10 million units. Vasectomies exceed 5,000.

TABLE 56
FAMILY PLANNING PROGRAMME 1965-66

	East Pak.	*West Pak.*	*Total*
IUD insertions	96,526	155,829	252,355
Units of condoms and foaming tablets sold	1,245,422	166,825	29,143,247
Units of EMKO, Jelly and Durafoam sold	56,540	7,127,780	7,184,320
No. of tubeligations and vasectomies done	4,035	1,365	5,400
Total couple years of protection from all types of Family Planning devices.	201,422.1	356,422.9	557,942.0

Source: *Family Planning Council*

19. LABOUR

Manpower. Statistics of Labour Force; Deployment of Labour; Unemployment; Manpower Requirements.

Labour Policy and Its Implementation. The Revised Labour Policy; Labour Legislation; The ILO Conventions; National Labour Conference; National Manpower Council.

Employment and Training Services. Employment Exchanges; National Employment Bureaux; Youth Employment Services; Industrial Training; Labour Administration Training; Industrial Relations Institute.

Terms of Employment and Conditions of Service. General; Agricultural Labour, and Industrial and Commercial Workers; Wages; Hours of Work; Industrial Safety; Health and Welfare; Social Security; Holidays.

Labour Relations. General Trend; Trade Unions; Industrial Disputes.

International Co-operation. The ILO Assistance; Assistance under UN Special Fund; Pakistan's Respresentation on the ILO.

MANPOWER

According to the 1961 Census of Population, 30.2 million persons, or one-third of the population constituted the civilian labour force of the country: this is to say that this number was 10 years of age or over and were either employed or looking for work. Of these, over 26.4 million, or 87 per cent were male and the rest female. The population not in the labour force mainly comprised those under ten years of age: over 35 per cent of the population; and housewives, who confined themselves to household duties: 23 per cent. The remaining 8.5 per cent consisted of those who were continuing their education, aged or disabled persons, and those few who were persons of private means.

A little over 306,300 or one per cent of the labour force, were not working but were registered as looking for work. Of these over 8,000 were women.

Province-wise, East Pakistan has a slightly bigger labour force, both in proportion to its population and in actual number. This is partly due to a greater participation of women in the labour market—10.8 per cent of the provincial labour force, against 6.1 per cent in West Pakistan. The total number of unemployed is also lower in East Pakistan.

A distinction can also be drawn between rural and urban areas. The rural areas, with over 86 per cent of the country's population, had a slightly higher percentage of labour force participation: 34

TABLE 57
CIVILIAN LABOUR FORCE ACCORDING TO 1961 CENSUS

Thousands

	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total Population.	90,283	47,517	42,766
Civilian Labour Force:			
Working	29,900	26,146	3,754
Seeking work	306	298	8
Total Civilian Labour Force	30,206	26,444	3,762

Source: *Census* 1961

against 31 in urban areas; a lower incidence of registered unemployment: 0.8 per cent against 2.7 per cent and in the case of female participation: 9.61 per cent against 3.13 per cent.

In the ten years between 1951 and 1961, the population increased by 23.9 per cent while civilian labour force increased by over 31.3 per cent*. According to estimates made by the Planning Commission, the increase in the labour force during 1960-65 was of about 3.6 million person, or at the rate of 720,000 per year. The rate will keep rising and during the five years, 1965-70, the increase will be in the order of 4.2 million, or at a rate of 840,000 persons annually.

Deployment of Labour

In 1961, a little under three-quarters of the total civilian labour force were engaged in agriculture of which 72.2 per cent were tillers of the soil, and 2.1 per cent were agriculturists other than tillers, such as orchard and nursery workers, gardeners, dairy farmers, poultry keepers and tea garden labourers. Women participation was highest (85.3 per cent) in agricultural pursuits. In the manufacturing sector the textile industry employed the largest number of women while others were employed in education, medicine and community services. Province-wise, the percentage of the agricultural labour force to total civilian labour force was much higher in East Pakistan (91.6 per cent) than in West Pakistan (70.45 per cent). The non-agricultural labour force in East Pakistan was accordingly very low (8.4 per cent against 29.55 per cent in West Pakistan). Agricultural employment was, as would be expected, almost entirely confined to rural areas. The highest percentage of agricultural labour force claimed by a city was 3.25.

A considerable change has been taking place in the sectoral deployment of labour. Growing industries are claiming an increasing percentage and the overwhelming dependence on agriculture has accordingly been declining.

*Here the civilian labour force is calculated for both the censuses on a basis of an age of 12 years.

TABLE 58
SECTORAL EMPLOYMENT

Industrial Group	*Jan.* 1951	*Jan.* 1961	*Jan.* 1964
	(% age of total labour force)		(%age of employed labour force)
Agriculture	76.45	74.55	69.36
Mining	0.04	0.07	0.12
Manufacturing	6.33	8.25	9.23
Construction including sanitary services, electricity, gas and water.	0.92	1.29	1.34
Transport, Storages, Communications.	1.40	1.77	1.97
Trade, Finance, Insurance and Real Estate.	5.13	4.97	6.96
a) Services	9.87	8.22	10.04
b) Not working but looking for work.		0.82	
Activities not adequately described.	..	..	0.98

Sources: *For 1951 and 1961 figures, Census Report 1961. For 1964 figures, CSO*

The current Five-Year Plan is carrying the change even further. The 5.5 million new jobs to be created during 1965-70 will be in the following proportion:

Agriculture	45.5%
Mining	Negligible
Manufacturing	17.3%
Construction	11.8%
Trade and Services including transport and communication.	25.4%

Unemployment

The unemployment figure in the country which according to the 1961 Census of Population was about 306,000, or about one per cent of the total labour force, does not reflect the real employment situation. There is still a high degree of under-employment in agriculture, traditional manufacturing, construction, trade and survices. The Third Plan estimated, that in the agriculture sector, about 6.3 million man-years of labour were not utilised in 1965. The estimate of unemployment, including man-year equivalent of partial un-

employment, for 1965, was that a total of 7.6 million man-years, or about 20 per cent of the labour force, could not be used for any productive purpose. The rapid growth of population and the continued influx of migrants from India has also been adding to the problem. The flow of labour to the urban centres mitigates underemployment in rural areas but raises it in cities and towns.

The Second Plan was, for the first time, able to match the increase in population with an equal number of new job opportunities. The 3.6 million addition to the labour force over the period was fully absorbed—1.5 million in agricultural and 2.1 million in non-agricultural sectors. Thus the existing level of unemployment remained undiminished. In the period 1965-70, it is expected that new employment opportunities will for the first time exceed the net increase in the labour force, by a fairly wide margin. New employment to be created during this period are estimated to be 5.5 million against the increase in labour force of about 4.2 million. Provision of full employment for the entire labour force is aimed at by about the middle of the Perspective Plan (1965-85).

Manpower requirements

While there is surplus of labour at lower levels, there is, characteristically, a scarcity of skilled hands.

The problem has been, therefore, two-fold: one, to match, and overtake, the rate of increase in population with new employments and, second, to train, a great number of people for jobs of skill. The Second Plan made a big effort to step up the output of trained manpower, and the Third Plan is carrying the work forward. However, the Third Plan assessment of the requirement of trained manpower during the five years from 1965 to 1970 exceeds the estimated output of them in many cases.

At the degree level the shortage is highest in the education sector, and in technical education most of all.

TABLE 59
THIRD PLAN ESTIMATES OF TRAINED MANPOWER IN 1970

	Additional Requirement	*Estimated output*
Engineers	13,100	6,000
Physical scientists & mathematicians	4,000[a]	9,550
Agriculture graduates	5,300	4,700
Physicians & Surgeons	4,200[b]	4,200
Commerce graduates, Accountants, etc.	..	16,500
Teachers	20,000	N.A.

(*a*) Known requirements.
(*b*) Covers all additional public requirements and small increase in the private sector.

The estimates for engineering and related fields were made according to four different levels of education.

(*i*) degree level and above;

(*ii*) diploma level, or a training course of three years or more, after high school or equivalent basic educational qualification;

(*iii*) certificate level, or a training course of less than three years after high school, or equivalent qualification;

(*iv*) below certificate level, that is, a training course of varying durations without basic education of high school or equivalent level.

TABLE 60
THIRD PLAN ESTIMATES FOR ENGINEERS: DEGEEE LEVEL AND ABOVE

Subject/Technology	Requirement	Estimated output	Shortage(—)
Civil	6,060	3,100	—2,960
Mechanical	2,655	900	—1,755
Electrical	3,060	1,100	—1,960
Others	1,325	900	—,425
Total	13,100	6,000	—7,100

TABLE 61
THIRD PLAN ESTIMATES FOR ENGINEERS: DIPLOMA, CERTIFICATE AND BELOW CERTIFICATE LEVEL

Level of Training	Output of		Requirements.	Shortage (—)
	Formal apprenticeship schemes	Regular training institutions		
1. Three years or more training after high school.	2,500	24,100	37,200	10,600
2. Less than three years training after high school.	1,400	19,200 }	330,000	205,000
3. Training of varying durations without high school qualifications.	6,700	97,700 }		

The above estimates cover the output of all regular training institutions, formal apprenticeship programmes in public and semi-public autonomous bodies, and of 31 private employing establish-

ments in East Pakistan and 33 in West Pakistan, mainly in cotton and jute text le. These estimates, however, exclude the output of regular training institutions of the WAPDAs, Shipyard, Civil Aviation, Pakistan International Airlines, and Broadcasting, which have set up these institutions exclusively for meeting their own needs in skilled personnel.

LABOUR POLICY AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION

Labour was a concurrent subject till 1962, when the new Constitution made it a provincial subject. As such, all legislation in this sphere is now the responsiblity of the provincial governments. However, the central Government also keeps a watch over the labour situation for the purpose of co-ordination and for meeting international obligations.

The new government that came to power in 1958 announced its revised 'labour policy' in 1959. The 'Revised Labour Policy' of 1959 embodies, *inter alia*, the following points.

(*a*) Sound relationship between the employers and employees as a pre-requisite for increased productivity.

(*b*) Industrial peace is essential for economic progress. Disputes between management and labour should be resolved through constitutional means, such as joint consultation, voluntary arbitration, conciliation, mediation and adjudication.

(*c*) Suitable measures should be adopted for providing social amenities to workers, of all categories, in the fields of health, education, recreation, housing, wages and other needs.

(*d*) With a view to achieving the above growth of healthy trade unionism is essential.

(*e*) Suitable measures should be adopted to reduce unemployment in the country. As a step towards it, the state will continue to maintain non-fee charging employment agencies, and develop employment services.

(*f*) Government will give due importance to research and collection of information concerning working and living conditions of workers.

(*g*) Private industries and organisations will also be encouraged to provide social welfare amenities in a co-operative manner: welfare cesses may be imposed on establishments for this purpose.

(*h*) Technical assistance in the field of labour from friendly countries will be welcomed.

(*i*) The labour policy of the government will be based on ILO conventions and other recommendations ratified by Pakistan.

Labour Legislation

The new labour laws enacted in pursuance of this policy included the Coal Mines (Fixation of Wages) Ordinance, 1960; the Road Trans-

port Workers Ordinance, 1961; the Minimum Wages Ordinance, 1961; the Tea Plantations Labour Ordinance, 1962; the Apprenticeship Ordinance, 1962; the Employees' Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962; and the West Pakistan Employees Social Security Ordinance, 1965. Labour laws enacted since July, 1965, are: East Pakistan Inland Transport (Regulation of Employment) Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Trade Union Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Shops and Establishments Act, 1965; the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965; and the Factories (West Pakistan Amendment) Ordinance, 1966.

The Industrial Disputes Act has been suitably amended to ensure quick and equitable settlement of differences between management and labour. The West Pakistan Industrial and Commercial Employment (Standing Orders) Ordinance, 1960, and the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965, lay down the framework within which the terms of employment and conditions of work of the labour should fall. The Trade Union Act, 1926, was amended with a view to providing compulsory recognition of trade unions, and imposing penalties for unfair practices. The Minimum Wages Board Ordinance, being enforced by the provinces, ensures suitable wages in various areas and industries, where labour unions are not strong enough to obtain a fair deal. Such other matters as employers providing welfare amentities to workers, the housing of labour, and ensuring proper development of technical training, apprenticeship and vocational guidance, have been implemented. Attention has also been paid to the continual assessment and co-ordination of manpower requirements, and making labour surveys and researches. A major step in this direction was the setting up of an inter-departmental National Manpower Council.

Since the transfer of labour to the jurisdiction of the provincial governments, the central government supervises implementation of labour policy by calling for periodical reports.

International Labour Organisation Conventions

Pakistan became a member of the ILO almost immediately after its inception and has since been closely associated with its activities. Pakistan has so far ratified 28 ILO Conventions—a figure not yet achieved by any other country in Asia and the Middle East, except India. Some of the Conventions ratified by Pakistan are those concerned with: freedom of association and protection of the right to organise (convention of 1948); right to organise and to bargain collectively (1949); night work by women (1919); underground work by women (1935); hours of work and industry (1919); night work by young persons in industry (1919); labour inspection in industry and commerce (1947); and the forced labour convention (1930).

National Labour Conference

A tripartite conference is held annually between representatives of labour, employers and the central and provincial governments to discuss labour and management problems and government policies.

The thirteenth session of this conference was held in August, 1965, when it discussed the following subjects:

i) ILO Conventions and recommendations adopted at the 48th session of the international conference held in June, 1964;

ii) suggestions for declaration of a truce between employers and workers for suspension of strikes and lock-outs (in the face of national emergency being anticipated at that time) ; and

iii) proposal to create a personnel management advisory service in Pakistan.

National Manpower Council

In pursuance of a Second Five-Year Plan recommendation, a National Manpower Council was set up in 1962. It is headed by the Minister of Health, Labour and Social Welfare, and includes members from the Planning Division, from all the important ministries, from the two Provinces, and from the Railway Boards. The functions of the Council are—

a) evolving policies and programmes for the development and utilisation of human resources;

b) devising programmes for meeting requirements of trained personnel on the one hand, and of productive employments for the surplus labour and youth on the other;

c) drawing up schemes for improved utilisation of labour through better management as the co-ordination of defence and civilian manpower uses; and

d) establishing a manpower planning organisation for development of basic data and analysis for manpower planning.

The Council is assisted by three specialised bodies.

1. High-Level-Personnel Committee.
2. National Training Board.
3. Civil Works Board (Employment Promotion Board)

High-level-Personnel Committee

The High-Level-Personnel Committee studies the needs and problems of high-level personnel, and devises and pursues ways of meeting them. Recently, on the recommendation of the Third Plan, it decided to establish a national register of high-level personnel. From this, detailed information will be made available to both employers and those of the high level category who are seeking employment.

The Committee has identified 42 occupations in the high-level category as key occupations and is currently undertaking an intensive analysis of each of these occupations. It has also prepared an assessment of persons available and required at the end of the Third Plan in these key occupations.

In addition, it has initiated a number of studies, such as on salary structure and incentives, in selected occupations, and on the employment potential in the private sector.

National Training Board

The National Training Board deals with schemes of providing actual training facilities.

Civil Works Board

The Civil Works Board deals with the problem of surplus man-power. Recently, this Board recommended the formation of an employment promotion board in each province and accordingly one has been set up in Western wing.

Collection of Manpower Statistics

The Directorate-General of the National Manpower Council in collaboration with National Statistical Council has set up a nucleus for routine collection of statistical information on manpower. This comprises—

(*a*) Quarterly survey of economic conditions, providing information on the population and the labour force by economic activities, by region, age, education and occupation.
(*b*) Periodical inquiry into known establishments employing 20 or more workers, as to employment, labour turn-over, man-hours worked, wages, and so on.
(*c*) Survey of vocational, professional and technical training facilities.
(*d*) Sample survey of labour force.
(*e*) Annual inquiry on labour welfare.
(*f*) Compilation of trade union statistics.
(*g*) Collection of other statistics.

EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING SERVICES

Employment Services

Agencies are necessary to bring job vacancies and suitable job seekers together. At the middle and higher levels, this service is provided mostly by newspapers. The gap in Pakistan is at the lower levels, and also for the assistance of young people who need guidance as well as employment.

Employment Exchanges

Government runs a number of employment exchanges whose activities are limited at present mainly to lower category skilled and jobs in urban areas. There are 23 such exchanges which maintain a separate branch for registration of high-level personnel seeking employment, and a separate section for women. The exchanges are to establish employment counselling services for youth and new entrants to the labour market. Their service is free, and the utilisation of their services is voluntary.

Each exchange maintains details of qualifications and exprience of all persons registered with it, and classifie; them by occupation. Vacancies notified by employers are also similarly classified.

The exchanges are becoming more and more popular. In 1948, less than 5,000 persons were provided with jobs but the yearly figure now ranges between 70 to 80 thousand. During the six months from January to June 1966, they helped 36,457 persons to get jobs. The figure for the calendar year 1965 was 79,739.

By wage-groups, the highest percentage of jobs provided has usually gone to the Rs 61-100 group which includes petty clerks, bearers, cooks and others in the unskilled or semi-skilled groups. This is followed by the Rs 101-150 category which comprises, in addition to the better-skilled of the above-named, such others as typists, chauffeurs, and shop assistants. The smallest is the Rs 151-and-above group.

National Employment Bureau

The National Manpower Council runs a National Employment Bureau which helps Pakistani technical personnel to get jobs both inside and outside the country. During 1965-66, it referred 7,290 applicants in different fields to countries in the Middle East and Africa, of which 1,805 were accepted. The major categories in which employment was provided with the help of the NEB were medicine, engineering, textile, education, law, banking, agriculture, ship-building, and jute industry.

The Bureau also assists Pakistanis abroad who are seeking placement in Pakistan. During 1965-66, nearly 400 highly qualified Pakistanis asked for the Bureau's assistance and some of them obtained employment through it.

Youth Employment Services

To enable youth to canalise its energies in productive pursuits in keeping with personal aptitudes an experimental scheme of vocational guidance and placement was started in 1964 under the Directorate General of National Manpower Council. Upto the middle of 1966, this service had imparted group guidance to 3,500 boys and girls, of whom 1,300 were provided individual assistance in a choice of career. The experiment proved very successful, and the units were handed over to the provincial governments for operation and expansion.

A beginning has also been made in some universities and other centres of learning to provide employment assistance to new graduates. These Bureaux, which will also be set up in other institutions, keep contact with important employers, including the Public Service Commissions.

Recently, two Youth Employment Services were set up, one in each wing, and staffed with officers especially trained in these fields. They give vocational guidance to young people and assist them in finding jobs suited to their interest and ability. During 1965-66 these services gave guidance to over 3,000 boys and girls in East Pakistan alone.

Training Services

Industrial

To stimulate training activity, Provincial Labour Departments have set up seven Technical Training Centres at Dacca, Chittagong, Narayanganj, Karachi, Gulbarg and Moghalpura (in Lahore), and Peshawar. They have intake capacity of about 2 000 boys. Nine more such centres are being set up. At these centres more than 30 trades are taught. There are two courses, one of 18 months for matriculates,

and the other of 12 months, for non-matriculates.

In addition, a number of government polytechnics and technical institutes conduct trade training courses on a part-time basis. For the short-term purpose, the National Training Board of the Manpower Council has recommended an 'intensified training scheme'. Under this 7,500 tradesmen are to be trained every year in basic engineering and allied trades. The aim is to impart training in selected fields by intensified methods which will reduce by 50 per cent the normal period of training.

The most important effort to train a labour force is by apprenticeship and in-plant training. In 1955, the Government set up a Directorate of Apprenticeship Training and a National Council of Apprenticeship Training. On the latter, government officers, employers and employees were all represented. The aim was to introduce inplant apprenticeship training on a voluntary basis but the efforts of the Directorate and the Council were not successful. Industrialists did not respond to the extent anticipated and only 385 apprentices were trained, 270 in Karachi and 115 in Dacca. Government, therefore, issued an Apprenticeship Ordinance in 1962, which envisaged that undertakings employing 50 or more persons on any day of the preceding 12 months would be responsible for training a certain number of apprentices. This Ordinance now ensures that 25 per cent of the total working hours are assigned to theoretical instructions for the benefit of the apprentices.

Labour Administration

The National Institute of Labour Administration Training, established in 1957, organises an in-service training programme for the central and provincial government and non-government officers dealing with labour problems. The Institute has so far organised nine training courses each of six months, with a short course of three months dealing with industrial relations. Each course was attended by an average of 25 persons. Instruction is imparted in industrial relations, industrial welfare, personnel management, industrial psychology, labour legislation, international labour standards, applied economics, and social research. A two-week tour of important industrial areas is also conducted.

Industrial Relations Institute

One Industrial Relations Institute has been set up at Tongi (Dacca) and another at Lahore.

TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT AND CONDITIONS OF SERVICE

Agricultural labourers in Pakistan are divided into three categories: permanently hired, seasonal, and casual. The permanently hired are those hired for at least six months in continuation. Casual labourers are hired for specific jobs. The terms of employment are generally governed only by tradition and by the labour availability position. Unlike industrial workers, there is, as yet, no speci-

fic legislation covering this class of worker. A beginning has, however, been made with the West Pakistan Land Reforms Ordinance, 1959, which has provided considerable security for tenants. The tenure system in this Province had been uncertain, although laws had been promulgated earlier in the former component provinces of N.W.F., Punjab and Sind which gave a measure of security of tenure. But landlords found ways of getting round this legislation, and ejected tenants at will. This was finally prevented with the 1959 law which required the ground for ejectment (such as sub-letting land, failing to pay rent, making it in some way unfit for cultivation) to be first established in a revenue court.

Industrial and Commercial Workers' terms of employment and conditions of service are regulated by provincial legislation: mainly the East Pakistan Employment of Labour (Standing Orders) Act, 1965, and the West Pakistan Industrial and Commercial Employment (Standing Orders) Ordinance, 1960. They replace some of the earlier legislation. While the East Pakistan Act applies to all establishments, the West Pakistan Ordinance excludes establishments employing less than 50 workers. The terms and conditions of service are required to be regulated according to law. Modifications can be made, in West Pakistan, only by a collective agreement between employers and trade unions, and, in East Pakistan, after being approved by an inspector appointed by the government. The law in both Provinces, requires classification of workers, specification of working time, holidays, wage-rates and other such matters. Rules are laid down for hearing and redressing grievances, for payment during temporary closure of the establishment, for punishment due to inefficiency, misconduct or other lapses, and for termination of service. Grievances, if not redressed to the worker's satisfaction, can be taken by the latter to the labour courts.

WAGES

Wages in Pakistan are generally subject to collective bargaining, and so they differ from one industry or occupation to the other. However, to protect labourers in a weak bargaining position, or those who do not have an organised trade union, a Minimum Wages Ordinance was promulgated in 1961. Under this, government regulates wages in industries where it feels that they are inadequate. This is done through a Wage Board which includes representatives of both employers and workers.

There are certain categories of workers whose conditions of work call for separate wage regulation. These include mine-workers, seamen, and such others. The Coal Mines (fixation of Rates of Wages) Ordinance, 1960 fixed the minimum wage of the underground miners at Rs 90 a month, (calculated on the basis of 200 working hours of work); the wages of surface workers at Rs 60 a month.

The East Pakistan Minimum Wages Board has fixed minimum wages for workers in the jute textile industry and the rubber industry.

Minimum wages in respect of the match and cotton industries, which were first fixed in 1959 and 1960 respectively, were revised in 1964. Wages in printing press, aluminium and enamel industry, re-rolling mills, oil mills, vegetable product factories, and biscuit and confectionery factories have been referred to the Minimum Wages Board.

In West Pakistan, minimum wages in respect of transport, steel re-rolling, cotton textile, wool, silk and rayon, rice, leather goods, and plastic products industries have been fixed. In December 1966, the West Pakistan Minimum Wages Board recommended minimum wages for all categories of workers in two more industries, that of sugar and ice manufacturing.

The Working Journalists (conditions of service) Ordinance, 1960, provided for fixing rates of wages for the working journalists through a wage board constituted under this ordinance. The Board fixed scales of pay and awarded various fringe benefits, such as dearness allowance and gratuities. For the purposes of fixation of wages, the newspapers have been categorised as metropolitan 'A' & 'B' and regional 'A' & 'B'. Different grades have been fixed for separate groups of working journalists in each category.

Persons in technical professions get technical pay, in addition to the normal salary. Low paid workers in offices and organisations are paid for overtime work.

Most of the senior posts in business, the professions, and civil service are in the range of Rs 2,000-3,000 a month. Some big factories pay even more than this to their senior executives.

No distinction is made between sexes for wage-rates.

The average wage received by a worker* in 1964 was Rs 1,483.04. The average by major industrial occupations was as follows:

TABLE 62
AVERAGE PAY PER WORKER BY MAJOR INDUSTRIES

Occupations	1964
Paper & Printing	Rs 1,940
Mint	Rs 1,902
Cotton & Textiles	Rs 1,647
All other Textiles	Rs 1,529.07
Miscellaneous	Rs 1,086

Source : *Central Statistical Office*

HOURS OF WORK

On an average a worker in Pakistan works 9 hours a day and 48 hours a week. For children the daily average is five hours. Women work as long as the men. A worker is entitled to extra pay for overtime at double the ordinary rate if he works additional hours. Double employment and overlapping of shifts is, however, prohibited. To

*Defined here as one receiving less than Rs 2,400 per year.

take the case of a specific industry: government has regulated the working hours of the road transport workers by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1961. This Ordinance limits the workers to nine hours a day and 54 hours a week. No worker may be employed on a vehicle for more than five consecutive hours without a break of at least 30 minutes, or more than eight hours without two breaks of the same length. Overtime work is permitted in exceptional cases.

Table 63 gives the hours worked in a week by workers during 1964:

TABLE 63
AVERAGE OF HOURS WORKED IN A WEEK

Percentage of workers	*Hours of work*
4.83	less than 24
7.99	24-31
10.04	32-39
18.69	40-47
20.33	48-55
38.12	56 and above

Source : *Central Statistical Office*

The highest 56-and-above hours' group include agricultural labour.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY

There are several statutory measures which ensure safety of the workers—like the Factories Act, the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, Tea Plantations Labour Ordinance, Dock Labourers Regulations.

In West Pakistan, working conditions and safety measures for workers in factories are governed by the Factories Act, 1964, and in East Pakistan by the East Pakistan Factories Act, 1965. The West Pakistan law applies to factories employing 20 or more workers and in any part of which a manufacturing process is being carried on with the aid of power. The provincial Government can, however, apply the provisions of the Act to factories employing ten or more workers where a manufacturing process is being carried on with or without the use of power. The Act provides for the regulation of such measures as opening of doors, precaution against fire, means of escape, fencing, specification of defective parts or test of stability of the building, safety of building and machinery, work near machinery in motion and prohibition of employment of women and children near cotton openers.

The Act also empowers the provincial Government to make rules requiring additional provision for health and safety measures for workers, as also provision of shelters during rest, creches and canteens in factories employing defined numbers of workers.

For the safety of transport workers, the hours of driving and the

rest periods of the driver of transport vehicles carrying either persons or goods are regulated by the Road Transport Workers Ordinance, 1962. The Tea Plantations Ordinance prohibits employment of children and women at irregular hours.

Efforts are made to ensure satisfactory physical standards at work place for providing better working conditions and for the protection of workers against industrial hazards.

Inspection of factories is regularly carried out by government inspectors to ensure that conditions for the safety of workers are being observed.

During the current Plan period government proposes to set up a national institute for industrial safety. It will educate workers and instructors in industrial safety and the avoidance of accidents in factories. The scheme also envisages the setting up in each province of a bureau of safety standards to deal with progress of industrial safety and occupational hazards.

HEALTH AND WELFARE

The Factories Act also lays down conditions for the health and welfare of employees. These include cleanliness of work rooms, adequate ventilation and suitable lighting, avoidance of overcrowding, proper sanitation, protection of workers from harmful dust, and provision of drinking water and first aid. On entry into employment in factories and docks persons to be employed are required to be medically examined by doctors appointed by the factory concerned.

The Tea Plantations Labour Ordinance, 1962 ensures reasonable sanitary, recreational, educational, medical and housing facilities to plantation workers. It also provides for the appointment of a welfare officer in a tea plantation employing 300 or more workers. A labour welfare division exists at Srimangal in East Pakistan which is responsible for medical, educational and recreational facilities to 100,000 tea plantation workers. It makes medical facilities available to the workers at their homes through fully equipped mobile medical units. There is also a mobile cinema unit, and a mobile library.

A coal miners' labour fund has been opened which provides numerous welfare benefits for coal mine workers. Two hospitals with mobile dispensaries and one welfare centre equipped with qualified staff are functioning. Educational facilities have also been provided for mine workers' children.

A seamen's hostel with a capacity for 280 seamen has been set up at Chittagong. Another at Karachi port is to be established shortly, which will have accommodation for 300 seamen. For the seamen's children, government grants Rs 10,000 in annual scholarships.

There are welfare centres for government employees in important cities in both wings of Pakistan. These centres offer stipends to poor employees' children, maintain libraries and meet other incidental needs of the workers and their families.

Labour welfare centres also exist for providing free educational, recreational, cultural and medical facilities to the industrial workers. The centres are fully equipped with medicines, medical equipment, library and sport facilities for indoor and out-door games.

SOCIAL SECURITY

The West Pakistan Employees Social Security Ordinance, 1965, has been promulgated in place of earlier legislation of the central Government to similar effect (Employees' Social Insurance Ordinance, 1962). This requires employers to contribute in the ratio of 2:1, to provide insurance cover for the employees against industrial injury, maternity, and sickness. Under this Ordinance cash as well as medical benefits, burial expenses in case of death due to occupational accidents, and pension for widows are provided. The worker who is permanently or partially disabled due to such injury is entitled to a pension for life and a lump-sum disablement gratuity.

The East Pakistan Government is also expected to promulgate a similar ordinance.

Initially social security has been introduced in the textile industry and social security institutions will soon be set up at Karachi, Lyallpur and one or two other places where the textile industry is concentrated. The institutions will collect contribution at the rate of six per cent of labourers' wages out of which four per cent will be contributed by employers, and the rest by the labourers themselves.

Some other factories have group insurance for workers and provide provident fund benefits. The Stevodoring firms at Karachi harbour, in co-operation with the workers union, maintain a social welfare fund.

HOLIDAYS

Manual workers in industries covered by agreements or statutory orders are entitled to 10 paid annual holidays and for children fourteen. Workers also get 10 days' casual and six days' medical leaves and another 12-13 days' festival holidays. Transport workers under the Road Transport Workers Ordinance are entitled to 14 days holidays on full pay after one year's continuous service, or to seven days after six months service.

LABOUR RELATIONS

Labour relations in Pakistan have remained fairly normal on account of a declared labour policy and because of the experience gained both by the employers and workers in successful relationship. When differences or grievances develop, they are usually considered in accordance with the rules and procedures provided by legislation. The traditional distrust of employers of trade unions and other associations of labour has given way to acceptance of these organisations as a necessary and convenient means of ensuring good labour relations. Situations in which negotiations

between employers and labour break down with consequent stoppages of work, are now infrequent. The figures for the calendar years 1948 and 1957 and those for 1965 are indicative of this, bearing in mind that there has been enormous expansion of industrial activity in the intervening period.

TABLE 64
WORK STOPPAGES

Year	*Stoppages*	*Workers involved*	*Man-days lost*
1948	57	36,231	135,580
1957	150	188,001	530,573
1965	140(*)	128,913	517,481

Source : *Ministry of Labour*

TRADE UNIONS

Although the trade union movement in the sub-continent dates from 1890, its proper development took place after the First World War, when, due to rising prices, low wages and high profits, industrial unrest became widespread. With the passage of the Trade Union Act of 1926 and, later, the establishment of the International Labour Organisation which acquainted labour in the sub-continent with labour movements in industrially advanced countries the trade union movement speeded up. By Independence, registered unions in the sub-continent had increased to 1,725 with a membership of 900,000. Pakistan itself began with few industries and a total industrial labour force of not more than 450,000. Its trade unions were, therefore, few, and those not well organised. The number of registered trade unions in 1947 was 75, most of them in the Western province. In 1958, the number had reached 635, with a membership of a little over 376,000.

In May 1966, there were 987 registered unions with a membership of 517,659. A significant fact is that the membership of these unions had remained stationary within a fixed range almost throughout the fifties although there was considerable increase in the number of trade unions: the new unions were thus splinters of the old ones only. Since then, however, there has been an appreciable rise in membership as well. This indicates a greater organisation of the labour and a greater appreciation of the usefulness of trade union. It is estimated that another 10 to 15 per cent of the labour force belongs to unregistered trade unions.

Most of the unions are situated in the bigger cities and towns, such as Dacca, Chittagong, Karachi and Lahore because they are the main industrial centres.

*Major industries involved were textile (51 stoppages), Engineering (12), Jute (11), Banks (6), Tea Plantations (5).

The unions are usually organised within individual establishments and their size is, therefore, dependent on the size of the establishment concerned. In view of this pattern of organisation, the unions, are by and large on the lines of company unions, and the development of unionism either on the basis of craft or of industry is not yet a common feature.

Every worker, as a unionist, has a right to attend meetings convened by the union, discuss its work and policy, put forward his own suggestions and take part in the election of branch offices.

The unions elect officials, including a secretary and a treasurer, who remain in charge of the office and are responsible to the executive council or board, which is usually elected by, and is responsible to, annual or biennial conferences of delegates from the branches.

The executive board or committee is empowered to take decision in respect of subjects and matters of national and international importance and matters referred to it for disposal by any of the federations.

The formation and recognition of trade unions are regulated in West Pakistan by the Trade Unions Act, 1926, as modified by the Trade Unions (Amendment) Ordinance, 1960 and, in East Pakistan, by the East Pakistan Trade Unions Act, 1965. Under the West Pakistan law, any seven or more members of a trade union can apply for the registration of a trade union by application to the Registrar of Trade Unions appointed by the provincial Government. If a trade union fulfils the requisite conditions, it is registered by the Registrar and a certificate of registration is issued. Registered trade unions and their officers and members cannot be proceeded against from under the law relating to criminal conspiracy in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purspose of furthering any object of the trade union, as also in respect of any act done in contemplation or furtherance of any industrial dispute. The Act prescribes the purposes for which the general funds of a registered trade union may be spent, and permits the constitution of a separate political fund for promoting the civic and political interests of its members. The fund may be used for financing any legal proceedings arising out of any trade dispute, and for social, educational and religious welfare of the unions, their members and members' dependents.

Registered trade unions are required to maintain account books and list of members, both open to inspection by any members of the union. They must submit to the provincial government an annual return containing a statement of assets, liabilities, receipts and expenditures.

The Trade Unions Act provides for the compulsory recognition by the employer of a trade union fulfilling certain conditions. If an employer does not recognise a trade union within three months of an application by the trade union, the trade union may approach an industrial court constituted under the Industrial Disputes Ordi-

nance, 1959. If the Court is satisfied that the trade union is fit to be recognised, it makes an order to this effect.

The executive of a recognised trade union is entitled to negotiate with the employer in respect of matters connected with employment or unemployment, the terms of employment, and the conditions of work of all or any of its members, and the employer receives and replies to letters, and grants interviews to the executive in connection with any such matters.

A list of unfair practices on the part of recognised trade unions and employers has been laid down in the Act, the commitment of which may, on the part of workers, result in the cancellation of recognition, and, in the case of an employer, in punishment.

The East Pakistan Trade Unions Act makes very similar provisions, with the exception that (i) a trade union shall not be registered unless it has a minimum membership of one hundred workers or ten per cent of the total strength of workers employed in the establishment or industry; and (ii) for purposes of recognition, in the case of refusal by the employer, the trade union shall approach the Registrar of Trade Unions, as against the Industrial/Labour Court provided for in the West Pakistan law.

All industrial workers, whether in government or private establishments, are covered by these laws. The civil government servants are, however, excluded from their purview. The formation of associations by them is regulated by separate administrative instructions issued by the Establishment Division of the government.

Federation

While trade unions may be purely local, most of them are affiliated to a central federation as the All Pakistan Confederation of Labour (an amalgamated body of two provincial Federations of Labour), the All Pakistan Federation of Trade Unions, the Pakistan Mazdoor Federation, the Pakistan Sea Farers Federation, and the United Trade Union Federation.

The largest of these is the All Pakistan Confederation of Labour (APCOL) which, by 1965, had 295 unions from 25 different industries, with a membership of almost 394,000 unionists. Important as these bigger associations are, especially when the bigger demands of labour as a whole are concerned, the local union remains the basic unit with its direct contact with the workers.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

For a long time industrial disputes in Pakistan were governed by the Industrial Disputes Act of 1929 which had had to be amended several times after independence. Under this Act, in case of failure of a conciliation proceedings, the conciliation officer was required to submit a failure report to the Industrial Tribunal. These tribunals, functioning as judicial bodies, decided cases more on point of law than on socio-economic considerations. The process was lengthy and rigid, and placed the rich employer in a more advantageous position than the poor worker. This Act has, therefore, been repealed and replaced by an Industrial Disputes Ordinance.

The new Ordinance provides for a procedure which works itself out more simply and more acceptably. As soon as a labour dispute takes place or is apprehended, the conciliation officer steps in. If he is successful in settling the dispute amicably, a memorandum of settlement is signed by the parties. If no settlement is in sight, he issues a failure certificate whereafter the parties are free to approach the Industrial Court for adjudication for which the old ad-hoc Industrial Tribunals have been replaced by permanent Tripartite Industrial Courts. Each Court consists of a high ranking judge and two assessors nominated by Government from amongst the workers and employers. This makes for a better applicatian of the problems from all concerned angles, and therefore inspires confidence of all parties in the Court's Award. The award is also appealable to a High Court.

To protect workers from unnecessary harassment, the Ordinance further provides that while conciliation proceedings are pending, or when a dispute is being heard by an industrial court, no employer shall alter the existing conditions of work or service.

There are at present 23 conciliation officers in East Pakistan and 14 in West Pakistan. The minimum additional requirement of each province has been estimated at 20 officers. Similarly, three more industrial courts in East Pakistan and five more in West Pakistan are likely to be set up shortly. A Legislative Cell may be created to watch the implementation of the awards of the courts and the collective bargaining agreements.

The Ordinance also provides for the institution of "works committee" by every establishment employing 50 or more workers. Consisting of representatives of the employers and workers, the committee's main functions are to promote measures for securing and preserving good relations between the employers and the workers, to offer comments on matters of mutual interest, and endeavour to compose any material differences between them. The worker's representatives are required to be not less in number than those of the employer and must be chosen in consultation with the registered trade unions concerned, if any.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION

ILO's Assistance

Pakistan has been receiving valuable assistance from the International Labour Organisation both in formulating policies and in implementing schemes. Some of the assistance received in past years is as follows:

(i) In 1951-52 two experts were assigned to Pakistan to study the organisation of government employment and training security services. Two other experts conducted a survey of social security available to the labour. These expert missions made valuable recommendations. They were followed by more experts who helped draft the Social Security Ordinance later promulgated by the Government.

(*ii*) A mission of five high-level experts surveyed the labour problems in general in 1952-53 and made recommendations for shaping a labour policy. These recommendations later influenced the formulation of government policy.

(*iii*) Early in 1953 two experts on training of labour officials for cottage industries visited Pakistan. They were followed by two more experts on labour statistics and on training-within-industry.

(*iv*) In 1953-54, an expert on agricultural labour made an extensive survey of conditions in Pakistan and made his recommendations.

(*v*) In 1954, Government invited a team of experts to advise on raising productivity in manufacturing industry.

(*vi*) ILO experts have worked with the Manpower and Employment Department to advise on vocational training and employment services and on vocational guidance and employment information programmes. Two other experts co-operated on the apprenticeship schemes.

(*vii*) An expert on co-operative education has recently completed his four year assignment at Lahore and another at Dacca.

(*viii*) Two experts advised on the establishment of a centre for marine engineering at Narayanganj, while two others assisted in diesel training.

(*ix*) Some experts have recently worked on minimum wages scheme, workers' education, and on rehabilitation of the disabled.

(*x*) Two experts are now working with the Government of West Pakistan on the implementation of a social security scheme introduced in the textile industry of the Province.

In addition, a large number of fellowships have been awarded by the ILO to officials of the Government of Pakistan and other persons for specialised training in various subjects, such as social security, employment service organisation, manpower problems, vocational training, road safety, cottage industries, industrial safety, industrial relations, foreman traineeship, personnel management, industrial welfare, labour administration, and small-scale and cottage industries.

Equipment has been provided from time to time for the government training centres. Equipment for the marine diesel training centre at Narayanganj has also been provided by the ILO.

Assistance under UN Special Fund

A recent activity entrusted to the ILO is to act as an executing agency for various projects of the United Nations Special Fund in the field of labour. Under the technical assistance programme of the Special Fund, the ILO has undertaken the task of assisting the government of Pakistan in training management executives, marine diesel

engineers, and general engineers and instructors for the rapidly growing industry of East Pakistan.

New institutions established in Pakistan with the ILO assistance are: (1) A Management Development Centre at Dacca, (2) A Marine Diesel Training Centre at Narayanganj, and (3) A Vocational and Staff Training Centre at Chittagong.

A similar project has recently been approved by the United Nations Special Fund for West Pakistan, with the ILO acting as the executing agency. Under the project, three units will be established at Karachi and Hyderabad.

The project is designed to cater to the needs of skilled personnel in the western wing of the country. Under this project, the West Pakistan Management Institute of WPIDC has been expanded and two ILO experts are at present working there. Two experts on apprenticeship training under this project are also working at Lahore and Karachi.

The third Special Fund Project, under which the ILO is providing technical assistance facilities, is in the field of manpower planning. Six experts are working in Pakistan under the project while others are expected to arrive shortly.

Pakistan's Representation on the ILO

Except for the period 1954-57, Pakistan has since 1951 been continuously represented on the Governing Body of the International Labour Organisation either as a titular member or as a deputy member. It has also been elected twice to the presidency of the ILO conference, in 1958 and 1965. Pakistan is a member of the Asian Advisory Committee and the Asian Regional Conference of the Organisation. In addition, it is represented on the following three industrial Committees of the ILO whose meetings are periodically held.

(*i*) Textile Committee.

(*ii*) Inland Transport Committee.

(*iii*) Committee on Work on Plantations.

The 50th Annual Convocation of the International Labour Conference was held at Geneva in June, 1966. Elections to the Governing Body of the ILO were also held during this session. Pakistan, which had just completed a 3-year term as a titular member in all the three groups of government, employers and workers, was re-elected a deputy member in the government group, and a titular member in the employer's group for a further term of three years.

The fifth session of the Committee on Work on Plantations was held at Geneva in May, 1966, and was attended by a tripartite delegation from Pakistan.

The Chief of the Agriculture and Food Section of the Planning Commission of Pakistan has been appointed a member of the Permanent Agricultural Committee of the ILO. This Committee is an advisory body of experts and its main functions are to facilitate the action of the ILO in respect of social problems and to act as the ILO's liaison with the agricultural world.

20. SOCIAL WELFARE

Introductory.

ORGANISATION

State Organisation. Organisation and Administration; The Plan Objectives; Training; Research.

Voluntary Organisation. Nature and Number: Social Services Co-ordinating Council; State Assistance: *Financial, Technical, Legislative.*

SOCIAL SERVICES

Types of Services. Urban Community Development; Rural Services; Medical Social Work; Relief Work; War Emergency; War Victims; Old Age Pension and Gratuity; Women Welfare; Child Welfare; Youth Welfare; Workers' Security; Beggars Rehabilitation; Released Prisoners and Offenders; Delinquents; The Handicapped: *The Blind, The Deaf and Dumb, The Disabled, The Mentally Retarded*; Social Evils.

Welfare in the Armed Forces. ARMY: Rehabilitation of TB Patients; Educational Stipends; Army Benevolent Fund; General Welfare; Allotment of Land: *Badin, Nawabshah, Guddu Barrage.* NAVY: Allotment of Land: *Guddu Barrage, G.M. Barrage*; Financial Compensation. AIR FORCE: Post-service Resettlement Scheme; Allotment of Land; Educational Training; Rest Houses.

Pakistan is committed to the objectives of a welfare state. The Constitution of 1962 binds the state to 'the well-being of the people irrespective of caste, creed or race' by raising the standard of living of the common man, by preventing concentration of wealth, and 'by ensuring an equitable adjustment of rights between employers and employees and between landlords and tenants'. The Constitution adds: "The basic necessities of life, such as food, clothing, housing, education and medical treatment should be provided for citizens who, irrespective of caste, creed or race, are permanently or temporarily unable to earn their livelihood on account of infirmity, disability, sickness or unemployment." The goal was reaffirmed by the President of Pakistan in his foreword to the Third Five-Year Plan, and again in his election manifesto of 1965. Accordingly, the development machinery of the country, and the central, provincial and local governments are engaged in providing for an expanding range and volume of social welfare services.

In the voluntary field, welfare activity among Muslims began with the institution of mosques in the early days of Islam. Although a Muslim could offer his prayers in the privacy of his home, his attendance at mosque five times a day became a social obligation. There,

at equal level with all the rest, he was made to realize that he did not live for himself alone, but was a part of a whole, that his rights were balanced by his obligations to his fellowmen. Thus the mosque became the centre for community welfare and development.

Today, voluntary social welfare agencies in Pakistan are organised on a secular basis; supplementing government efforts in substantial measure, and in many cases also acting as agencies for the government.

Social welfare in the scientific sense was first accepted as governmental responsibility early in 1952. The services of a United Nations expert were obtained for advice on programmes to be initiated; and two training courses were started at Karachi followed by a third at Dacca in co-operation with United Nations Technical Assistance Administration.

ORGANISATION

STATE ORGANISATION

The central administrative agency is the Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Welfare. Under the 1962 Constitution, social welfare was made a provincial subject, and accordingly all executive functions and all projects and institutions were transferred to the provincial governments. The Labour and Social Welfare Division of the central ministry continues to deal with matters of national and international importance. On the Third Plan's recommendation a professional administrative set up is to be established for country-wide co-ordination, collation, legislation, international co-operation and grants-in-aid were recommended for private national agencies for social work and to the universities and colleges for instruction in social work.

National Council of Social Welfare

In January 1956, the Central Government created the National Council of Social Welfare made up of official and non-official members. The function of the Council is to assess the needs and activities of voluntary organisations and provide them with necessary stimulus, guidance, financial and technical assistance. Later, such Councils were also set up in the two provinces. These Councils serve as advisory bodies to their respective Governments. In the provinces, the administrative and executive agencies are the Directorates of Social Welfare.

Basic Democracies Welfare Units

To take social work down to the common people, about 110 social work administrative units are being set up through the Basic Democracies, at sub-divisional level in East Pakistan and at district headquarters level in West Pakistan. Staffed by trained social workers, these local bodies will initiate, organise, control and supervise all kinds of social welfare services envisaged in the Third Plan.

Plan Objectives

In the First and Second Plan periods, the performance organisa-

tion and administration of welfare activities at the public and private levels, training, research, urban community development, medical social work, child and youth welfare, recreational services for children and youth, delinquency and probation, rehabilitation and training of the socially and physically handicapped, and financial assistance to voluntary welfare agencies, were organised. However, in financial terms, the First Plan accomplished 25 per cent of its target and in the case of the Second Plan(nearly three times the size), about 50 per cent. During the latter, a scheme was included to extend the programme of social service to the rural areas using the Basic Democracies. The programmes of community development, medical social work and grants to voluntary agencies were fulfilled as regards urban areas.

The current Plan is spending Rs 90 million on social welfare. It has laid down its objectives as follows:

(*a*) to promote development tasks by involving the people in their accomplishment;

(*b*) to consolidate existing preventive, curative, and rehabilitative social services at all level; and

(*c*) to initiate new programmes, to meet untackled needs as well as problems of individuals, families and communities.

The First Plan had initiated social service activities at the centre, and the Second Plan carried the work to the provincial level. The Third Plan aims to extend the process further and organise work in all local bodies 'where it really belongs, and where it is most beneficial'. The social services are to form a regular function of local bodies both in the urban and rural areas. The organisational and administrative structures are now being streamlined and strengthened. Institutions like *auqaf* (trusts), *zakat*, *sadaqat*, and *khairat* (religious charities) are being utilised to organise community chests, trusts, and charity funds. Generally, the aim is that the promotional, developmental, preventive, and rehabilitative programmes should get priority over curative, remedial and palliative ones.

It is intended that by 1970, 1,138 physical units will have been established, and 400 private agencies will have received financial assistance and professional help.

Training

Colleges and universities are trying to meet part of the country's needs for trained social workers. At present 20 colleges are providing such instruction at graduation level. Twenty more are to join by 1970. At post-graduation level instruction is provided at the universities of Punjab, Karachi, Dacca and since 1965, at Rajshahi. Peshawar university will follow shortly. Institutes or centres are proposed to be established in collaboration with the universities and in addition, there are arrangements at various places for short-term training courses for members of voluntary organisations, some organised by social welfare councils. At school, the Boy Scouts and Girl Guides provide the young with good initial start.

With the help of these facilities, it is expected to train some 2,000 workers during 1965-70 to man services in social welfare, family planning and related fields.

Research

Attention is being paid to systematic investigation of various aspects of social welfare for realistic planning, and to facilitate education and training. Nucleus research centres are being established under the central and provincial governments and in the universities. Seventeen research projects are currently being taken up, covering such handicapped as orphans, beggars, vagrants, prostitutes, blind, deaf, dumb, delinquents and the mentally deficient.

VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

The number of bonafide private agencies of social welfare stood at 4,000 in 1965. This contrasts with the figure of 200 in 1955. Private effort has thus grown 20 times in ten years. A few are national in character, such as the All Pakistan Women's Association, Pakistan Council for Child Welfare, Pakistan Conference of Social Work, National Federation for the Welfare of the Blind, Pakistan T.B. Welfare Association, Pakistan Leprosy Association, the Red Cross Society and the St. John Ambulance Association, the latest two affiliated to the appropriate international bodies. Many are provincial, but most of them are smaller organisations concerned with local problems. The Young Men/Women Christian Associations also work within their given spheres.

Most of the voluntary agencies are multi-functional, having a wide range of activities: they provide relief measures against calamities, care and education to orphans, protection to widows, and assistance to the handicapped; they set up schools, libraries, child and maternity homes, family planning clinics, and recreation centres for children.

Social Services Co-ordinating Council

Another voluntary agency, the Social Services Co-ordinating Council co-ordinates the activities of more than 60 social welfare agencies in Karachi. It has the following broad objectives:

- to work for the development of social welfare activities on scientific lines;
- to study the social needs of the community and formulate suitable plans for their solution;
- to serve as a channel of communication between voluntary and government agencies;
- to improve the quality and standard of service of voluntary agencies and assist in their development;
- to encourage and promote the professional training of social workers and their employment in agencies;
- to hold seminars, conferences, workshops, study groups, demonstrations and exhibitions on social problems; and
- to encourage the formation of similar councils in other cities of the country.

The Council has six sections and various sub-committees through which a multitude of social services, ranging from child care, education, recreation, health and training, are provided. The Council received annual grants from the National Council of Social Welfare (Rs 10,000 in 1965-66).

Comparatively few agencies undertake specialised services, such as the care of socially or physically handicapped people. The reasons for this have been two-fold: such services require trained personnel, of whom there has been a comparative scarcity; secondly, the agencies taking up such activities tend to run into organisational and financial problems. However, with government effort coming forth in greater measure, the situation is already improving.

State Assistance

It is realized that voluntary agencies should play a major role in assessing local needs, in rendering necessary services and stimulating local effort on the principle of self-help. Accordingly, effort has been made to strengthen such bodies, wherever necessary, so that they may play their part more effectively.

Financial

So far, the National Council of Social Welfare alone has, in the ten years of its existence, provided financial assistance amounted to Rs 13.7 million to some 200 voluntary organisations in the form of grants-in-aid. This assistance was usually given for one or more of the following purposes:

- to raise the general standard of service of the organisation;
- to help the organisation obtain services of professional persons or to get its own workers so trained;
- to help the organisation produce informative publicity literature.

The assistance is generally offered on the principle that the receiving organisation matches the assistance in equal degree from its own resources. In addition to this, special grants are also made. The All Pakistan Women's Association, for example, receives Rs 50,000 annually.

Technical

Government's efforts in strengthening and expanding training facilities in the country have been stepped up. In addition, the central and provincial councils of social welfare offer technical assistance. Trained social workers are appointed to work with voluntary agencies in accordance with their needs. The Councils also arrange short-term training courses for social workers. They publish booklets, regular newsletters, and other such informative material for the benefit of these organisations and their workers.

Legislation

Voluntary organisations need to be assisted in managing their affairs in a sound manner and maintaining a proper standard of performance. It is also necessary to see that the interests of bonafide agencies, and of philanthropists who contribute to their programmes, are safeguarded. With a view to achieving these objectives, the Voluntary

Social Welfare Agencies (Registration and Control) Ordinance was passed in 1961, and its implementation was handed over next year to the provincial governments. New agencies are now required to obtain registration from the registration authority in the provincial Social Welfare Directorates before starting their operations. Existing organizations were given a time limit within which to register themselves. In addition to registration, the registration authority renders valuable advice to organisations on maintaining records and accounts, and on their operation in accordance with the provisions of their constitutions and, the Registration Ordinance.

SOCIAL SERVICES

Social problems and needs in Pakistan are many and varied both in nature and extent. Some of them have existed for centuries, such as beggary, poverty, ignorance, disease, destitution and prostitution. Others have been created as a result of rapid economic and physical development, an expanding communication system, and educational advancement which lead to new attitudes and aspirations, and the desire for greater freedom among specific groups such as women, students, industrial and commercial employees. Rapid urbanisation leads, among other things, to a breaking up of the family with its traditional ways of life. Uneven capital formation and lack of skills result in economic inequalities. Cultural conflicts, emotional and mental disorders arise from the challenge of adaptation required in times of change.

Not all of these, and none entirely, are due to shortage of resources. Organised corporate effort is considered capable of alleviating many of these problems and this is why social service has acquired such importance. Some of the social services available in the country are described in the following paragraphs.

Urban Community Development

Urban community development (UCD) is a multi-purpose self-help programme. It envisages the employment of trained social workers in community project areas to motivate, organise, help and guide communities in the development process; to establish schools, adult education centres, libraries, reading rooms, clinics, vocational training centres, industrial homes and recreational places; to promote community hygiene, health and sanitation; to fill ditches; to make streets; to organise recreational and cultural activities, and arrange social assistance.

The idea of community development was first put in practice in the Lyari community demonstration project which was initiated as a field work assignment to the trainees of the first training course in social welfare, and was taken up as a project by the government in 1954. The programme has since expanded considerably and now tops the priority list in the Five-Year Plans of the government. At present there are 95 UDC projects (52 in East Pakistan and 43 in West Pakistan). Each of these is manned by two social welfare organisers

and three to five mohalla level workers, depending on the location of project. According to an estimate a total of 491 projects are needed in the country, that is, one project each for a population of 25,000 to 30,000. Thus 396 still remain to be set up.

Rural Social Services

A beginning in the rural areas was made very early with the Village Agricultural and Industrial Development (V-AID) programme. Later this was replaced by a village extension service with the social services part being entrusted to the Basic Democracies under the Basic Democracies Order, 1959. A social service programme was then evolved. It envisaged setting up of some 5,400 rural social services units, one each for a community of some 15,000 people. Currently 500 of them are being set up and funds are being provided from the Rural Works Programme.

Medical Social Works

The fundamental purpose of medical social work is to make medical treatment more effective by creating a liaison between doctor, needy patients and the family through a trained medical social work organiser. The organiser finds out the socio-economic conditions of the patient, creates a congenial atmosphere for the patient to recover speedily, and then helps to rehabilitate him.

At present 25 medical social work projects are functioning to provide needy patients with medicine and diet, besides educating them in preventive measures. Sixty medical social work projects, thirty in each province, are proposed to be established during the current Plan against an estimated need of the country of 650 more projects.

Medical social work is supplemented by many voluntary associations in the country. The most notable services are rendered by the Pakistan Red Cross Society and the St. John Ambulance Association (Pakistan), which provide equipment and organise blood-banks.

Relief Works

Relief work constitutes an important part of social service. Natural calamities like flood, cyclone and drought are regular features in Pakistan. Services to the affected people include cash grants for purchase of seed, drought animals and house-building materials. Strong community and sub-community centres have been formed in the coastal areas and islands of East Pakistan where the visit of seasonal cyclones is a common phenomenon. Further services are made available through temporary relief camps, free or modified rationing, free distribution of clothes, and preventive medical measures to immunise the people from epidemics.

The President's and the two provincial Governments' relief funds also meet most of the emergent rehabilitation needs. Voluntary associations associate themselves with the government efforts.

Relief aid is also extended to refugees from India and the Indian occupied Kashmir. Nearly 10 million refugees, leaving their homes in India, took shelter in Pakistan in the post-independence days.

They have gradually been rehabilitated.

War Emergency

The most striking example of spontaneous, whole-hearted and universal keenness for rendering social service arose during the seventeen days of India's war on Pakistan in September, 1965. The provincial Directorates of Social Welfare harnessed this enthusiasm in the towns and training was given in civil defence, nursing and first aid in the community development areas. Social welfare and civil defence committees were formed throughout the country and assigned suitable duties, including first aid, providing shelter against bombing, and burial work. Quilts and blankets, old clothes and shoes were collected by the social Welfare Councils and voluntary agencies, to be distributed among war affected people. Blood donors crowded at the donation centres.

War Injury

The War Injuries (Amendment) Scheme, 1965 provide security for a person receiving injuries as a result of enemy action during a war. If the person is incapacitated temporarily for work for a period of not less than seven days and more than six months, he receives in respect of that injury, if engaged in a work of national defence, a lump sum grant. Persons sustaining injuries causing serious and prolonged disablement are paid a monthly amount which varies with the degree of disablement. In case of death, one surviving eligible member of the family of the deceased gets a lump sum grant which is higher if the deceased was a bread winner than if he was not.

Old Age Pension and Gratuities

A pension is given to a public servant retiring from government service, normally at the age of 55. He receives a pension of 60 per cent of average emoluments for each year of qualifying service upto 30 years. If a public servant retires or dies after less than ten years qualifying service, then either he or his family receives a gratuity at the uniform rate of one month's emoluments for each completed year of qualifying service, subject to a maximum of Rs 12,500. Temporary employees whose services are terminated after completion of ten years qualifying service are granted a gratuity equal to one month's pay for each year of qualifying service, subject to a maximum of Rs 25,000. Public servants also get the benefit of a compulsory provident fund on which government gives 4½ per cent interest. The contributory provident fund system exists in autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies and usually in private organisations. Generally, an employee sets aside upto 10 per cent of his basic pay to which is added an equivalent contribution from his employer. It is not normal in this case for the employee to receive a pension on retirement.

Women Welfare

Services to the under-privileged women in Pakistan include training in a variety of useful vocations, such as garment-making, embroidery, wool-knitting, ink-making, and cigar-making. There are at present two centres set up by the government, one each at Dacca and

Karachi. One hundred and fifty women attend each of these centres daily, and earn wages during and after training. More of these centres are being established.

Mother's clubs have also been established to impart health education, mother-craft and adult education, and to help needy women earn money by training in sewing. These clubs are aided by UNICEF which supplies sewing and knitting machines. Some clubs are also run by voluntary women's agencies. Mohalla level workers and lady social organisers pay home visit and supervise their progress.

Destitute women, especially widows, are given shelter in Women's Homes run by the provincial governments voluntary agencies where they receive training in vocations and household arts. Those who are young and are desirous of marriage are found suitable husbands. Others are rehabilitated in their homes. The present number of homes for destitute women is only three, one each at Dacca, Karachi and Peshawar. Many voluntary associations, however, give help to needy and destitute women.

Child Welfare

Child welfare services comprise Day Care centres for children of working mothers, Baby Homes for parentless infants, and Multi-Purpose centres, providing food, clothes, education and recreational facilities. Fifteen such units, eleven in East and four in West Pakistan, are engaged in these works in the public sector. Voluntary agencies are also active in this field, and run centres of their own, mainly for children without families. It is estimated that 4,000 specific service units are needed to meet present needs. Currently, Government is organising 34 pilot-projects, after which it will help communities and voluntary organisations to supply similar services to children on a similar pattern.

Pakistan Council of Child Welfare

The Pakistan Council of Child Welfare has been rendering useful service in co-ordinating the work of various child welfare organisations. It also provides an advisory service to these agencies, and seeks to create a greater public consciousness of children's problems.

Six Presidential awards for children upto the age of sixteen are provided under the auspices of the Council. These are:

(*a*) Three awards for the best child writers in Bengali, Urdu and English.

(*b*) Two awards for the best child artists, one for the age-group below 11 years and one for the age-group 11 to 16 years.

(*c*) One award for a spontaneous act of courage and service.

The awards are supervised by a Children's Award Committee headed by the central minister for Social Welfare. The names of the recipients of the awards are announced on the occasion of Universal Children's Day which is organised by the Council on behalf of the Government on the first Monday of every October.

UNICEF Projects

Several UNICEF aided projects are concerned with maternal and child health, providing benefit to over 100,000 women and children. Family planning clinics are attached to all maternity and child health centres within the UCD projects. Mohalla level workers are trained in the basic elements of maternal and child health and lady organisers perform a supervisory role.

There are two UNICEF aided Children's Welfare Training Institutes, one at Dacca and another at Lahore. They impart short-term (6 weeks) and long-term (6 months) training courses in modern methods of child care, and administration of child welfare agencies. The training includes both theoretical and practical instruction.

Orphanages

Care of destitute or neglected children is organised in the Orphanages where, in addition to general education, they are given vocational training so that when they leave the centres they are capable of earning an independent livelihood. The East Pakistan Directorate of Social Welfare maintains 17 state and 24 aided orphanages in each of which about 500 orphan children are cared for. These orphans are taken at the age of five and kept till they are of eighteen. Girls are usually found suitable husbands. The number of orphanges maintained by the West Pakistan Council is 19, all of which receive financial help.

Baby Care and Placement Centre

The Naunehal Baby Care and Placement Centre at Karachi receives unwanted and homeless babies and gives them later for adoption by suitable families. The parents are chosen from a long list of applicants after a detailed investigation into their position and background. The Centre established in 1963 has so far received 44 babies, of whom 30 have been given for adoption.

Voluntary agencies

Private agencies bear the major responsibility in child welfare, mainly for children without families or parents. There are nearly 500 known orphanages in the country running on a voluntary basis. The number of inmates varies between 40 and 400 each. Many of them receive financial assistance from the Councils of Social Welfare, and are inspected and supervised by councils officers. There is a recommendation for setting up 'Special Committees' for specifically managing and supervising the affairs of the orphanages in each province.

Youth Welfare

Youth organisations in the country include Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, the Works Camp Association in Dacca, and the Pakistan Youth Hostel Association in Lahore. The Board of Secondary Education of Karachi has an ambitious youth work project in hand called the National Youth Centre.

The provincial Directorates of Social Welfare undertake schemes of youth welfare in various districts, with the objective of fostering opportunities for health, social, physical and cultural growth of young

men. Sixteen Youth Welfare Centres have been organised by the East Pakistan Government. Each Centre is run by a Youth Welfare Organiser appointed by the provincial Directorate of Social Welfare. There is a Youth Welfare Board in each Centre, consisting of members representing different educational, government and voluntary agencies. These boards co-ordinate, guide and support youth welfare programmes designed to radiate eventually from the town into the rural areas. Youth hostels aim at providing facilities for recreation for young people and children with an emphasis on hobbies, production skill and training. The youth welfare organisers foster interest in work camps, community services and youth rallies for young people.

It is estimated that nearly 750 service units are needed for serving the youth of the country. The state is providing 29 model units one in each district in East Pakistan, and one in each division in West Pakistan. Furthermore, youth hostels, youth camps, Boy Scouts, Girl Guides, and other organisations in this field will be included in the programme and given grants-in-aid to build youth hostels, organise camps, and establish youth service centres.

Workers' Security

Although not based on the principle of social insurance, there are laws in Pakistan regulating compensation for employment injury and maternity benefits, the liability for which is, at present, entirely that of employers. The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923 provides for compensation payable by employers to certain categories of workmen, for injury caused by accident arising out of and in the course of employment, provided the incapacity lasts for more than four days and is not caused due to drunkenness or wilful disregard of safety rules or failure of observance of safety devices by the worker. Compensation for death and permanent total disablement consists of lump sum payment depending on the monthly wages of the worker.

There are provincial laws providing for maternity leave of 12 weeks and, in case of women working in mines below ground, 16 weeks. The rate of maternity benefit during maternity leave differs according to circumstances.

With a view to introducing a social security scheme in the country, the Employees' Social Insurance Ordinance was promulgated in 1962. Before this Ordinance could be enforced, it was decided, consequent upon the transfer of the subject Labour to the provinces, that both the provincial governments would enact their own social security legislations with a view to establishing separate autonomous social security institutions in each province. Accordingly, the Government of West Pakistan promulgated the West Pakistan Employees' Social Security Ordinance in May, 1965 to come into force on March, 1, 1967. The government of East Pakistan are expected to promulgate theirs at an early date.

The West Pakistan scheme has been launched, in the first instance, for workers in textile establishments in Karachi, Hyderabad and Lyallpur. In all there are 345 textile establishments, and about

115,000 workers will benefit from this ordinance. The scheme will later be extended to all other textile establishments as well as to other industrial and commercial concerns throughout the province. Under the scheme a fund amounting to six per cent of labourers' wages is set apart, of which four per cent is contributed by employers and two per cent by workers themselves. It provides for cash and medical benefits in sickness, maternity and employment injury as well as disablement pension and gratuity, death grant and survivors' pension to workers in industrial and commercial enterprises. Rules have been laid down in respect of the extent to and ways in which benefit will be made available to the workers.

The ordinance applies to any person working normally at least 24 hours per week for wage in any industrial or business undertaking under any contract of service or apprenticeship. It does not apply to person earning more than Rs 500.00 per month nor to industries employing less than 20 workers.

Rehabilitation of Beggars

Social services to beggars include lodging in vagrant homes and their rehabilitation. There are four homes for the destitutes, and 16 more are being set up. It is intended that eventually each district authority and municipal committee should set up such a home. To eradicate beggary Government has prepared several schemes in accordance with the recommendations of the Commission for Eradication of Social Evils. The schemes envisage survey of beggary to assess the household composition of their families, rate of dependency, level of literacy and skill among beggars, their present level of income, and extent of individual disability. Such a survey has been started in West Pakistan. The schemes aim at gainful employment of able-bodied beggars and reclamation and rehabilitation of the dependents.

One scheme worked out recently by West Pakistan is to enrol all able-bodied beggars in labour force. It also provides for education and training of disabled beggars. The labour 'battalions' of able bodied beggars will have sections, platoons and companies. A section will comprise 30 beggars, headed by a retired sepoy. Three sections will make a platoon and three platoons make a company. The company will be placed in the charge of two retired junior commissioned officers. Three companies would form a battalion, under the charge of a battalion commander. The battalions will be mobile, and will be used in the interior of the country where construction or development plans are to be undertaken. Wages will be in accordance with the market rates but will go to the battalion, and not to individuals.

The government of East Pakistan is running two vagrants homes at Dacca and Mymensingh for the rehabilitation of beggars. It has also established self-help centres for the purpose in some places of the province where UCD projects are operating, such as in Khulna, Bogra, Rangpur, Comilla and Faridpur. The beggars are being given proper training in different vocations and professions for purpose of their rehabilitation.

To prevent indigent people from joining the corps of beggars or other undesirable classes, a programme for providing assistance to such persons and families has been drawn up. A part of the programme consists of case work services through which rehabilitation of assisted persons becomes possible. Twenty-nine such assistance units are being currently established. Full utilisation is to be made of the religious and other charitable agencies or by mobilising financial resources for supplementing and expanding the programme.

Offenders and Released prisoners

Probation and after-care centres with qualified officers provide service to offenders and released prisoners. The probation officers work in co-operation with court, police and jail authorities for the treatment, reformation and ultimate rehabilitation of offenders and released prisoners. Cases of selected offenders are referred to the probation officers by the court for socio-economic investigation on the basis of which such offenders may be granted probation and allowed to live freely in society instead of being sent to prison. They are placed under the professional supervision of probaton officers for a period from one to three years. The probation officers make efforts, by providing case work services, for the treatment and rehabilitation of such offenders.

Besides the probationers, probation officers also work with prisoners for their rehabilitation in society after release from prison. Prisoners having no definite shelter or abode are accommodated for a temporary period in the After-Care Centres on their release. Since the inception of this service in 1962, about 500 offenders have been granted probation in East Pakistan. They have successfully completed their probationary period and have been rehabilitated in the society as law-abiding and useful citizens.

Delinquents

Schemes for the establishment of juvenile courts, remand homes, training and rehabilitation institutes for delinquents have been under consideration. The total need is assessed to be about 315 service units of about 100 cases each. A beginning is being made with 18 units, comprising juvenile courts, remand homes, training and rehabilitation centres, probation and after-care services.

The Handicapped

The number of the physically and mentally handicapped of all categories runs into hundreds of thousands. According to an estimate 2,500 service units, each comprising 100 to 300 cases, are required at present. It has been established that most of the physically handicapped can be made self-supporting. Accordingly, there is a pilot programme in hand for training and rehabilitation. Forty model institutions, supported by modern extensions, are being established. Voluntary effort is also forthcoming in considerable measure.

The Blind

There are about 500,000 blind persons in the country. Several well known institutions exist which provide board, lodging, educa-

tion, vocational training, and employment opportunities for 50 to 60 persons. Twenty-seven more such centres are being opened during the current Plan period. Private organisations, like the Association for the Prevention of Blindness and the Adult Blind Centre are also rendering useful service. The East Pakistan Council for Child Welfare has started a crippled children centre for physio-therapic treatment. About 35 patients attend this Centre daily. Some blind males are trained in religious maktabs and mosques. They become Hafiz-e-Quran, i.e. they learn the holy Quran by heart and then teach Quranic education to children.

The Deaf and Dumb

There are about a dozen centres for the deaf and dumb which provide training in trades and other vocations. Another five are being set up at suitable centres. This category of the handicapped are considered most trainable and capable of becoming economically productive.

Mentally Retarded

Three new model institutions are to be set up for the mentally retarded. Social workers will be employed to provide necessary guidance to patients and their families, to help them find adjustment. The Pakistan Institute of Mental Hygiene and the Pakistan Association of Mental Health are conducting a survey of the incidence of mental illness, and also have four programmes in hand for educating public opinion about it.

SOCIAL EVILS

In traditional societies like that of Pakistan, there are not just social, economic and physical handicaps that need to be made good, but there are numerous social evils also arising out of these or other deficiencies, or inherited as semi-sacred customs from previous generations. These hamper the general well-being of the people no less than the physical or material deficiencies do.

One of the important initiatives taken recently to encourage thinking on the subject and to mobilise effort for eradication of the more harmful ones began with the setting up of a Commission for the Eradication of Social Evils. The Commission was asked—

(*a*) to examine the origin, nature and extent of social customs and practices prevalent in the country which produce evils in societies and act as obstacles to individual and social progress;

(*b*) to examine the measures so far adopted by Government and other agencies to combat them and assess the effect of them;

(*c*) to examine the factors responsible for the continuance of the evils and for the resistance encountered in combating them; and

(*d*) to suggest ways and means of—
- minimising the effect of the economically oppressive customs, as a short-term measure; and
- completely eradicating them, as a long-term measure.

The Commission issued a detailed questionnaire to thousands of people of all sections, personally interviewed many of them throughout the country, and finally presented its report, making recommendations about traditional ceremonies and customs on such occasions as birth, death and marriage, about problems of children and adolescents, beggary, prostitution, gambling and betting, intoxication, corruption and obscenity.

WELFARE IN THE ARMED FORCES

THE ARMY

Rehabilitation of T.B. Patients

To rehabilitate soldiers suffering from T.B. a scheme on Occupational Therapy was introduced in ten Military Hospitals. The aim of this scheme is to impart vocational training to T.B. patients under medical treatment so that they may become self-supporting after invalidation out of service. After successful completion of vocational training, the individuals are provided with sewing machines/equipments/tools according to their trades by GHQ so that they may start small business/industry for earning their livelihood.

Educational Stipends and Facilities

The general public and the Government have given a substantial number of stipends to the children of *shaheeds* of the Armed Forces. Young children below 6th class are also being given stipends from other private donations. All the school-going children of *shaheeds* studying in 6th class and above have been given stipends. Even the dependents of bachelor *shaheeds* have been catered for.

The West Pakistan Government have reserved three seats in each Medical College for the children of Armed Forces personnel.

Benevolent Funds

Army Officers Benevolent Fund was instituted with effect from first October, 1953 with a view to affording financial relief or assistance to families of deceased subscribers, subscribers invalided out of service, ex-subscribers incapacitated within 10 years of their retirement. Rules of the fund were published in the Gazette of Pakistan in May, 1956.

A similar fund was instituted from first January 1957, for Junior Commissioned Officers and Other Ranks. This fund is administered by Centres.

General Welfare

GHQ are looking after the general welfare of serving personnel, ex-servicemen and their dependents. A large number of petitions regarding land/house disputes, complaints against civil officials, for monetary help, asking whereabouts, seeking matrimony, etc., are received. All possible assistance is given in such cases. Cash grants are given in extreme cases of distress. Apart from this, sewing machines are given to widows of deceased soldiers to enable them to earn their livelihood and become self-supporting. Relief to flood/cyclone affected personnel are also given.

Allotment of Lands

18,000 acres of land was allocated to the Defence Services to complete the total allocation of 100,000 acres under one settlement scheme. The settlement of the selected personnel, planned to be completed by June 1965, had to be suspended due to abnormal situation in the country. Consequent on return to normalcy after September 1965 war, the left over work was restarted and it has since been finalised.

During 1961, Government had allocated 50,000 acres of land on Setharki Minor in Nawabshah District for settlement of military settlers of Makhi Dhand whose land was completely water-logged. So far about 500 Makhi Dhand optees, both serving and retired, have been settled. There are still 600 optees who are required to be re-settled.

During 1963, Government earmarked 100,000 acres of land to the Defence Services. Selection of the most deserving officers, JCOs/ORs, both serving and retired, was made in 1963. During 1964, it was decided that the allocation should be released in two phases. All land is not surveyed and rectangulated, and so the progress of settlement is slow. So far a total of 8,484 acres of land has been allotted to Defence personnel.

NAVY

Settlement

Pakistan Navy have been allocated 6,000 acres of agricultural land under the Guddu Barrage Scheme, which is scattered in various *Dehs* in Sukkur District. The break-down of this allocation is as under:

(*a*)	Right Bank of River Indus	..	1,410 acres
(*b*)	Left Bank of River Indus	..	3,302 ,,
(*c*)	Pat Feeder (Phase II of the Scheme)	..	1,288 ,,

In addition to the serving Pakistan Navy Personnel, 20 retired officers and men have been selected for allotment of the above land. Of this 12 have already settled and started cultivation. The remaining are expected to be settled in Phase II (Pat Feeder Scheme) when the land in that scheme becomes available.

The Navy were allocated 1,433 acres of non-perennial land in Deh Amerki under Phases I & II of G.M. Barrage Project and 35 retired ratings were settled in that area in 1960/61. Due to very poor quality of soil most of the settlers deserted the land and at present there is hardly any Naval settler there. Naval Headquarters are endeavouring to acquire alternative land for them.

Financial Corporation

During 1965 24, ex-ratings were paid lump-sum grants amounting to Rs 4,670 for their rehabilitation after retirement. 90 families of deceased officers and ratings were paid monthly pensions amounting to Rs 49,335. Six families of deceased ratings were paid compensation amounting to Rs 38,000 from the Death/Disability scheme.

AIR FORCE

Post-Service Resettlement

A Post-Service Resettlement Scheme exists in the PAF for procuring suitable jobs for retired officers and airmen. Immediately on issue of release/discharge orders the officers and airmen proceeding

on retirement are required to complete the proformae in case they wish to obtain assistance from Air Headquarters for seeking employment. The names of those who wish to secure employment are registered on the waiting list.

Air Headquarters maintain close liaison with Government and semi-Government departments, Central and Provincial Public Service Commissions, private firms and industrial concerns to procure vacancies. Whenever vacancies are notified by these organisations, suitable retired personnel are recommended for consideration. In addition to this, personal contacts are also made for securing vacancies.

Applications of retired personnel whenever received for any post are forwarded to the employers concerned if the applicant fulfils the conditions laid down for the post.

Rehabilitation Liaison Officers are functioning at important places in the country. They form part of the Army formations and afford all possible assistance to the retired personnel (excluding retired officers) of the three services for procurement of jobs. These Liaison Officers keep contacts with the local firms, mills, factories, employment exchanges and assist the retired airmen in getting jobs.

Settlement

Agricultural land is also allotted to the retired personnel from time to time under various schemes.

Vocational Training

Retired personnel and their sons are eligible for vocational training in the Technical Training Centres. The Post-War Services Reconstruction Fund awards stipend of Rs 40.00 per month per head. In addition to this a Government stipend of Rs 15.00 per month is admissible to retired personnel undergoing training in these centres.

Rest Houses

Retired personnel experience considerable inconvenience when they visit cities and towns for the purpose of attending court, drawing their pensions, etc. They cannot afford to meet hotel expenses of their boarding and lodging. To overcome these difficulties some rest houses have been established at important cities. Such rest houses will be gradually provided in all the important towns of the country. They are maintained from the Post-War Services Reconstruction Funds and are open to the serving as well as retired personnel of the three services.

21. HOUSING AND CONSTRUCTION

HOUSING

Pakistan has a rich tradition in housing and town-building. The remains of the Indus Valley Civilization of about 5,000 years ago give indication of precise city planning. During the Mughal period, cities like Dacca and Lahore reached the high point of their development. However, in the mid-twentieth century the problems of housing have assumed a very different shape. On gaining independence in the post World War period, and after two and a half centuries of lost initiative, Pakistan found itself face to face with all of them.

Administration

Early in the century, as cities became confronted with the threat of overcrowding, insanitary conditions and transport difficulties, statutory bodies, called Improvement Trusts, were created to look after planning and development. The first Trust in the territories comprising Pakistan was set up in Lahore in 1936. Today out of 31 cities with a population of more than 50,000, 22 have such Trusts or Development Authorities. In addition, there are 109 urban municipal authorities. Three local authorities i.e. those at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore, have a complement of qualified staff for town planning and housing. In addition to these, the Khulna, Chittagong and Peshawar Authorities also undertake housing work. Other local bodies limit themselves to supplying drinking water, providing sewage and sewerage facilities and the building of community houses.

The main functions of these trusts or authorities are the acquisition, clearance and improvement of land. They are required to be self-financing, and they meet development expenditure by the sale of plots of land to private individuals. But, in the current Plan period, it is proposed that improvement trusts or development authorities should shoulder greater responsibilities in handling the sectoral programme, rather than simply executing self-financing and improvement schemes which are not integrated into an overall development plan. To this end, substantial funds are proposed to be earmarked for improvement trusts or development authorities in both East and West Pakistan. It is expected that these bodies will be in a position to develop 60,000 plots and 15,000 nucleus houses or flats—5,000 in East and 10,000 in West Pakistan.

In rural areas, the district councils are made responsible for housing development. The actual work is carried out by the union and *thana/tehsil* councils. In cities also, as municipal government develops, local planning and development functions may be entrusted to it.

In East Pakistan, the Public Works Department develops satellite towns for refugees and the general public; and executes the government's own housing programme. It examines land requirements for various projects and lays the results before the Central Land Allocation Committee. The Planning Department controls physical and financial programmes and chalks out physical targets for various sectors. In West Pakistan, the Town Planning Department acts in an advisory capacity and prepares most of the satellite township schemes for the Housing and Settlement Agency responsible for the rehabilitation of shelterless people.

The Central Government (through the Rehabilitation and Works Division of the Ministry of Agriculture and Works) is responsible for centrally administered areas, including the two federal capitals under construction, and the rehabilitation of refugees from India and the Indian-held territories. The civil works authorities are the Pakistan Public Works Department and the Capital Development Authority. Where necessary, the Centre also provides funds, defines policies, and undertakes basic research or other investigation of problems common to both provinces.

Several government departments and services, such as the railways, posts and telegraphs, port authorities, and irrigation and power development organisations, carry out independent housing programmes for their employees.

Long-term national planning in this sphere is done by the Physical Planning and Housing Section of the Planning Commission.

THE PROBLEM

Housing is a perennial problem the world over. It is more acute in developing countries with high population densities and is further aggravated where there are sporadic immigrant accretions. The problem in Pakistan emanates from the following factors—

(*a*) Increase in the population at a rate of nearly 3 million every year.

(*b*) Increase in the urban population at twice the rate (6 per cent) of the overall population increase, due to rapid urbanisation.

(*c*) A big carry over of shortage in urban housing: of 540,000 in 1947; 600,000 in 1960; 950,000 in 1965; and an estimated 1.2 million in 1970.

(*d*) Inflow of Muslim immigrants from India in a regular stream, rising rapidly in times of crisis, such as in 1947-48, 1951, 1955, 1961, and 1964-65. The total number of such immigrants upto December, 1966 was 10.5 million, equal to half the population of Australia.

Low income and high production costs add to the difficulty of keeping pace with these aggravating factors.

These factors impinge mainly on urban areas. In the 100,000 villages of Pakistan the problem generally is qualitative rather than quantitative. The houses that have been constructed are often of poor standard, sometimes lacking basic facilities, such as a supply of pure water, drainage and sanitation. Insufficient communication facilities has helped to keep most of these villages isolated.

Census

In the urban areas there were, in 1960, nearly 2.2 million dwelling units providing accommodation to 1.6 million households each. Counting the units that needed to be replaced and the number of persons who declared themselves shelterless (nearly 38,000), the urban housing shortage at that time was about 600,000 units. Since then the need has been augmented at the rate of 100,000 each year, offset only by 30,000 new units annually.

In East Pakistan, roughly 60 per cent of the dwelling units are made of bamboo and 30 per cent of timber; only 10 per cent are of brick. Climatic conditions are the main reason for this. Poverty is also a factor. In West Pakistan, roughly 70 per cent of existing dwellings, almost all of them in villages and belonging to the poor peasantry, are made of mud. Nearly 30 per cent are of brick. Shacks or *Juggies*, (bamboo-and-asbestos shelters,) form the urban slums.

Guidelines of Policy

It has long been realized that housing and physical planning formed too big a problem to be left to the natural demand-and-supply mechanism in the private sector. More recently state policies have been redefined and the whole machinery has been reinforced. Some of the points emphasised are as follows:

(*a*) *co-ordination* of housing projects with development in agriculture, industry, transport and communication;

(*b*) *socio-economic and technological gap* between city and village to be reduced;

(*c*) *private sector* to share the major burden of constructing houses, and to be helped by tax concessions, credit facilities and liberal allocations of land;

(*d*) *slum-dwellers, industrial workers, and low income-groups* to

be assigned first priority, and the slum clearance work to be done in a scientific manner;

(*e*) *rural immigrants* to be given developed land free of cost with essential services and facilities, and to be encouraged to build their own temporary or permanent houses under government technical supervision;

(*f*) *distance to be minimum* between place of work and place of dwelling of industrial worker; alternatively travel time and cost to be reduced;

(*g*) *rest and recreation areas* and community parks to be developed.

(*h*) *speculative holding of urban land* to be controlled by legislation;

(*i*) *distribution of responsibility* for housing as between local bodies, provincial administration and central Government to be clearly laid down and the discipline of long-term plans enforced,

(*j*) *research* to be intensively carried out to discover utilisation of—
- local material
- new material
- old material in new ways.

Also research in environmental sanitation.

(*k*) *Housing surveys* to be carried out for the collection of data and evaluation of needs and conditions to continue.

The current Third Five-Year Plan aims at meeting the most essential needs in the way of housing and services, according to a system of priorities, and at laying directions for future urban and rural development. Co-operative housing and other forms of self-help and mutual aid arrangements are being encouraged and expanded to middle and low income groups, through grant of land at low cost and technical assistance and advice. Rapid mass production of cheap, standardised dwelling units through such societies is also being considered.

PROGRESS

It has been said that urban housing needs have so far outstripped developments. In coming years, the greater efforts now being made will improve the situation but are unlikely to reverse it. The urban population is estimated to have risen by three quarters during the sixties alone. Moreover, apart from backlog, 120,000 new dwelling units are required every year.

In the early years, the pressure of migrating population, and the need for immediate improvisations, were too great to allow for any long-term planning. The First Five-Year Plan drew up an integrated housing programme for 1955-60, but, for various reasons, it was accomplished to the extent of only one quarter. The Second Plan, which was more than twice in size, achieved 50 per cent of its target, and laid the groundwork for further development.

Between 1947 and 1965 some 1.66 million dwelling units had been constructed and about 50,000 plots developed. Seven master plans

for urban development were prepared, and actual implementation initiated. An urban development directorate in East Pakistan was created to prepare an outline for the whole of the province as well as detailed master plans for approved localities.

In community services 100,000 tubewells were sunk, water supply schemes for about 60 towns and sewerage schemes for eleven towns, were taken up by the East Pakistan Public Health Engineering Department. The Greater Karachi Water and Sewage schemes were also completed. In both East and West Pakistan, construction work of about a hundred buildings, such as police headquarters, jails, many districts, sub-divisional and divisional headquarters and one-unit accommodation at Quetta, Khuzdar, Hyderabad, and Multan were completed.

The Third Plan has allocated 12.7 per cent of its total expenditure to physical planning and housing, and has exceeded the Second Plan allocation by 70 per cent. It aims at building 292,500 residential houses. Fifty per cent of these are meant for lower income groups, forty per cent for the middle, and ten per cent for the upper.

Current Programme

The current programme of housing in the public sector consists of the following:

(*a*) slum clearance and low income housing; and housing for industrial workers;

(*b*) rehabilitation of displaced persons (*i.e.* migrants and evictees from India)

(*c*) housing for public servants; and

(*d*) construction of the new federal capital at Islamabad, and the second capital, at Dacca.

Slum clearance and low Income Housing

Slums have become almost an inevitable feature of modern cities. In Pakistan they especially proliferate in Karachi, Dacca and Lahore, followed close by the industrial towns like Narayanganj, Khulna and Lyallpur. Those that need early clearance in Pakistan are those occupied by squatters on public land on various open spaces or on the edges of urban areas. They generally consist of temporary shacks, *jhuggies* and other such improvisations.

Local authorities are now building increasing numbers of houses, especially small dwellings for low income groups who cannot afford to build houses of their own. These dwellings are sold to occupants on easy instalments payable over a period of 20 years. In selecting tenants the authorities give preference to those living in slums and congested areas, and these facilities are offered on a no-profit-no-loss basis. Plots are also developed and sold to persons intending to build their own houses.

The Public Works Department of East Pakistan has undertaken nine town-planning schemes to provide better housing facilities to the people. One important scheme, the development of Motijheel commercial area which lies in the heart of the city has cost Rs 4½ million,

and is nearing completion.

The Dacca Improvement Trust has started several housing schemes which have so far cost Rs 67.5 million. Of these, the Gulshan model town scheme has been completed. The Chittagong Development Authority has also undertaken housing schemes; and the Khulna Development Authority spent Rs 15.4 million on several such schemes during 1960-65.

The West Pakistan Government has prepared a programme for building large townships at Lahore, Lyallpur, Peshawar and Hyderabad. The Lahore township scheme covers about 3,000 acres of land, and will also provide facilities for industrial development over an area of 700 acres. The total cost of the project is Rs 106 million. The scheme will be self-sufficient, having schools, colleges, hospitals, welfare centres, banks, post offices, mosques and large commercial centres.

The project has been designed to provide 10,000 one-room living-quarters and 10,000 developed plots for shelterless families of low income groups. About 3,000 quarters are either nearing completion or are under construction. In addition, several small housing schemes have also been initiated in various districts.

Among the local authorities in West Pakistan, the Karachi Development Authority has taken up new schemes and is providing developed plots on easy terms. It constructed 190 multi-storied flats in Golimar and Lyari for low-income people; developed plots in Federal Capital Area-B on which 15,000 houses were built and settled 6,000 families in the Aurangi, Qasba and Baldia townships. It also developed Khudadad colony, and work on developing the Gulshan-i-Iqbal is going apace. The major construction work was, however, done in Korangi township and New Karachi, both meant for low and middle income groups (p. 530).

The Lahore Improvement Trust has sponsored several townships, and has provided developed plots in different parts of the city as well as incentives to build in the form of loans for house-building at low interest. It now proposes to construct a number of 15,000 houses, of which 2,000 will be one-roomed, 11,000 two-roomed, and 2,000 three-roomed, at a cost of Rs 134.3 million.

For industrial workers' housing, there is now a proposal for setting up an Industrial Workers' Housing Corporation. It may initially be established under government sponsorship, with some seed capital, but later it is expected to be transferred to the private sector. A major part of the finance required will be raised by industrialists themselves. Part of the industrial workers' housing needs will also be met by the co-operatives under general low income housing programmes.

Private Sector

Heavy reliance is being placed on the private sector in the housing programme. While the public sector confines itself mostly to creating necessary facilities and developing plots for the construction of houses, the end-product, in terms of the number of houses actually built, largely depend upon the efforts of private individuals and firms. Nearly

73 per cent of the houses planned for 1965-70 are to come from private initiative.

Co-operatives

It is realized that if there is greater incentive to the private sector, its investment in housing will rise.

There are about 400 co-operative housing societies in the urban areas of the country. Developed lands are allotted to them by the local improvement trusts or development authorities at cost price, which they then lease out to their members for house-building. Government is encouraging co-operative societies as a means of promoting construction in the private sector. To alleviate the housing problem it has now been recommended that even building and distributing of small and cheap houses on a mass scale may be done through that agency.

To organise a co-operative house-building movement on proper lines, it has been suggested that co-operative housing institutes be developed at both the provincial headquarters in consultation and co-operation with the newly set up Co-operative Management Institute at Lahore and the Co-operative College at Comilla. The aim is to expand the principle of co-operation to low and middle income housing by integrating these effectively with the machinery and the institutional frame-work of local government. Other steps are also being considered to improve the functions and output of the co-operative societies. Aided self-help, and mutual aid housing, have also been recommended for introduction in the two wings.

Rent Control

For calculation of gross rent, the Rent Control Act prescribes a maximum based on a percentage of the total investment. This Act does not apply to new construction, and the provincial Rent Controllers are required to be approached for a fair assessment. The Government itself pays at the rate of 9 per cent for the houses it has requisitioned in Rawalpindi for accommodating its officers. Due to scarcity of houses in urban areas, rents actually charged is higher than these rates. In Dacca, Chittagong, Karachi, Lahore and such other cities, it is as high as 10 to 12 per cent.

REHABILITATION OF MIGRANTS

On independence in 1947, there was a heavy influx of Muslims from the territories of India, into Pakistan, and since then, the flow has not altogether ceased. There have especially been heavy evictions of Indian Muslims from Assam and West Bengal, while the movement from occupied Kashmir into Azad Kashmir and Pakistan also becomes heavy from time to time. Because of these inflows of refugees, special efforts have to be made for their rehabilitation in addition to the normal measures recounted in the preceding paragraphs.

Slum-dwellers and low income group people include many migrants from India. Therefore, the housing of this group also means, in large part, the rehabilitation of migrants from various parts of India, from the Indian-held Jammu and Kashmir States, and the evictees of West Bengal, Assam and Tripura. Provision of housing for this mass of

human beings has posed a gigantic task for Pakistan. The well-to-do were able to build their own houses and have gradually settled down, but the majority left everything in India and possessed no means to maintain themselves in Pakistan. Consequently, the immediate short-term programme for rehabilitation provided for basic amenities and scope for integration into the economic life of the country. Legislation was enacted in 1948 to protect evacuee property abandoned by non-Muslims in Pakistan and allot it to incoming migrants.

For a permanent solution of the problem, Government started to build townships and colonies. Since most of the refugees came to Karachi, the country's first capital on independence, rehabilitation work there was given top priority. The first major step in this direction was taken by the Revolutionary Government in 1959, when it built the Korangi township. Some 26,000 one-room quarters were constructed on behalf of the Government by the Karachi Development Authority under the Greater Karachi Resettlement Scheme.

The Korangi township is divided into a number of sectors, each having approximately 2,000 families and providing its own market, shopping centres, schools, health centres, mosques, community buildings and open-spaces. A number of sectors combine to give further facilities, such as hospitals, a central commercial area, colleges and town halls. There is a large industrial belt attached to this scheme so that people living in the area have scope for local employment.

The Karachi Development Authority has also built over 18,000 quarters in New Karachi and 7,000 quarters were provided for displaced persons in the Malir extension scheme. Both Korangi and New Karachi will ultimately cater to populations of 500,000 and 350,000 respectively. In all, the Government has so far spent about Rs 1,000 million on the settlement of 100,000 families of displaced persons in Karachi alone.

In other parts of West Pakistan, 42 satellite townships, accommodating 80,000 families, were built.

The East Pakistan Government developed 15 housing schemes to provide nucleus houses to shelter persons throughout the province, and over 23,900 houses, 2,000 flats, and 809 shops were built at a cost of Rs 201.24 million.

Rehabilitation of refugees is also included in all the housing schemes of local housing authorities and refugees receive preferential treatment in these schemes.

As a result of the disturbances in the Jammu and Kashmir State after independence, more than half a million Muslims were forced to take shelter in West Pakistan. A number of camps were opened and for several years food and clothing were provided for these refugees by the government. They have since been rehabilitated in various parts of Pakistan. Upto the end of 1964, about 274,000 of them, making up over 54,500 families, were allotted 53,200 acres of evacuee agricultural land for rehabilitation purposes. Nearly 20,000 families were paid cash grants to rehabilitate them in their various professions

and occupations. Others have been given houses, shops and industrial concern to enable them to find means to lead an adequate and useful life.

Another 1,700 shelterless refugee families are being rehabilitated in colonies being set up at Ugoki (Sialkot), Dhigranwali, Gujranwala, and Dina (Jhelum) at a cost of about 10 million rupees.

Kashmir refugees uprooted by enemy action during the war of September 1965 were treated in the same way as other refugees and the Government of West Pakistan took steps for their re-settlement. Refugees who settled in Azad Kashmir are being looked after and cared for by the Azad Kashmir Government.

Over half a million Muslims were evicted from their homes in the Indian states of Assam, Tripura and West Bengal and pushed into Pakistan in an impoverished condition. Various schemes were prepared for their rehabilitation and executed through the Relief and Rehabilitation Directorate set up for this purpose. By 1965, the central Government had sanctioned grants aggregating Rs 30 million. A Central Rehabilitation Fund was created by levying a surcharge on certain taxes and the expenditure on rehabilitating these refugees is now financed from that fund. A high level committee consisting of representatives of the central Government and the Government of East Pakistan has been set up to sanction rehabilitation schemes.

Settlement of Claims

Another aspect of the problem of displaced persons is their settlement, which involves compensation for the immovable properties abandoned in India when migrating to Pakistan. This aspect had throughout been given top priority, and is now nearing completion. The settlement of claims has been done by transfer of property in the compensation pool, and by payment of cash compensation to those whose claims could not be adjusted by such transfer.

More than 1.5 million claims were registered according to which Rs 23,000 million worth of properties were claimed by displaced persons. Since the question of the settlement of claims and payment of compensation was dependent on the availability of evacuee property and the assets abandoned in Pakistan by non-Muslims, and these proving insufficient, it was considered essential to cut down the value of the claims to the lowest level in order to reduce pressure on the compensation pool.

Transfer of Properties

Out of 564,370 units of urban properties comprising houses, shops, building sites and industrial concerns, 527,110 units were disposed of by transfer, sale, auction or otherwise. Permanent transfer deeds in respect of 255,900 units have also been issued.

Cash Compensation

Side by side with schemes for the disposal of property in the compensation pool, action was also in progress for payment of compensation in cash. A sum of Rs 261.62 million has so far been paid in cash to claimants, which included interim or full compensation to widows,

orphans, invalids and old persons.

Land Settlement

Against 1,438,000 land claims from agreed and non-agreed areas, all, except 4,000 claims, had already been settled. Sufficient land was available for settlement of the remaining 4,000 claims.

FINANCING

There are only two agencies providing house building credits to individuals and private housing societies. One is the House Building Finance Corporation, an autonomous body formed under the House Building Act, 1952, and the other, a private body which has recently been established in Karachi.

House Building Finance Corporation

The House Building Finance Corporation provides long-term loans at 6½ per cent interest, payable in monthly instalments over a period of 15 years. It conducts its business through head offices at Dacca and Karachi. The zonal offices have regional and sub-regional offices under them. There are two regional and six sub-regional offices in East Pakistan, and two regional and six sub-regional offices in West Pakistan. From these offices, credit facilities for house-building purposes are made available to the people of 165 towns and cities of Pakistan—72 in East and 93 in West.

The Corporation has an authorised share capital of Rs 50 million, fully subscribed and paid up by the Government. Upto June, 1965, it received Rs 60 million by way of loans from the Government and also raised a further capital of Rs 130 million by floating debenture.

The basic policy in the sanction of loans by the Corporation is to help those people who have some resources but not enough to build houses. Since inception and until 1965, the Corporation has sanctioned loans to a total amount of Rs 337.3 million. The loans sanctioned are disbursed by instalments at progressive stages of construction by the borrower. Payments amounting to over Rs 281.7 million have already been made.

With the aid of these loans over 17,000 houses have been built by individual borrowers and over 7,000 houses and flats by co-operative societies.

Although the Corporation is guided by commercial considerations, it endeavours to grant a larger number of small loans for the construction of small houses.

Loans and Building Association

The East and West Loans and Building Association has been set up on the lines of the Savings and Loans Association for House Building in Europe and North and South America. It is, like them, a thrift institution where people deposit savings, and the institution in turn lends money for house-building. As such institutions charge a slightly higher rate of interest on loans than the normal rate, they are able to provide a higher return than the commercial banks. Accordingly, various income groups are attached to such associations. After a certain period, each depositor becomes entitled to obtain a loan. Such Associa-

tions create new capital for housing and are not dependent on support of government, except for initial seed capital.

It has been recommended that such institutions be set up at Lahore and Dacca, and the State Bank directed to study measures necessary to encourage their growth.

Banks & Insurance Companies

Commercial banks do not normally provide credit against the security of real estate, because long delay is experienced in realising such securities. For this reason the Credit Enquiry Commission has recommended setting up a specialized mortgage institution which is not restricted by liquidity considerations and can realize its security, if necessary, over longer periods of time. This recommendation is under consideration. Insurance companies, which have substantial funds at their disposal, have also so far not participated in providing house building loans. The reasons are, firstly, the difficulty of insurance companies in supervising construction work to ensure that their funds are actually invested in house building; and, secondly, the legal requirement that the bulk of their funds must go with government securities and approved shares.

THE BUILDING INDUSTRY

The building industry embraces the following activities: development of land, production of building material; designing and supervisory services; construction of buildings; manufacture of construction equipment and supply of manpower, managerial and contracting services.

The first of these activities, namely the development of land, is carried out almost entirely by local authorities.

Building Materials

The building material industry has been developing very fast. The production of cement, is now very substantial in quantity. Standardisation and prefabrication and introduction of other newly developed materials are under consideration. Utilisation and development of local building materials, such use of soil stabilisation in West Pakistan, and of bamboo as reinforcement in place of cement concrete in East Pakistan, are being explored.

Designing and Supervisory Services

There are departments of architecture in the Lahore and Dacca universities and other universities are expected to establish them also. Architectural draftsmen's courses are to be introduced in the polytechnics and other sub-professional institutions. The Pakistan Institute of Engineers, the Institute of Architects and the Institute of City and Regional Planners are guiding the development of consulting and supervisory services in their fields.

Construction and Construction Equipment

Modern methods are being adopted in cities in construction planning and management. Construction equipment is not yet being manufactured in the country, but production is being planned. The two Housing and Building Research Institutes and the Pakistan Council

of Scientific and Industrial Research make studies of these aspects.

Manpower, Management and Contracting Services

Although manpower is not scarce in Pakistan, there is a shortage of skilled labours. Per capita output and efficiency, for the same reason, are comparatively low. Building Trade Schools have been recommended for both provinces as one step in solving the problem.

Contracting services and managerial skills have developed rapidly during the past few years, mostly as a result of heavy demand and intense activity.

THE NEW CAPITALS

ISLAMABAD

Islamabad is the new capital of Pakistan and is still under construction. Selected by a Commission especially set up for this purpose, the site is the table-land of the Potwar plateau, near Rawalpindi. Spread over an area of 351 square miles it is an expanse of natural terraces and meadows rising 1,700 to 2,000 feet above sea level. In September 1960, the Capital Development Authority was created to build the new city.

Functional Zones

The city is divided into various functional zones which are described in the following paragraphs.

The Administrative Sector

The Administrative Sector, located towards north-east and situated on the main axis of the city, will contain the principal public buildings such as the President's House, Secretariat Blocks, Assembly Building, Supreme Court, and a group of cultural buildings. This will form the focal complex of the metropolitan city. The eight massive, multi-storeyed Secretariat Blocks have been completed in this Sector, and several divisions of the central ministries have already moved into their permanent offices there.

The Diplomatic Enclave

A special enclave of 500 acres is provided for the location of the chanceries and residences of foreign diplomatic missions. It is situated in a pleasant setting, close to a picturesque lake (Rawal). With an average elevation of 1,800 feet above sea level, its slopes lend themselves to the construction of imposing buildings at various levels. A small stream meanders through the area. Some 32 countries have already purchased plots of land in this area.

Residential Sectors

Residential sectors have been planned in rows, placed on both sides of the main civic, commerce and business centre in the heart of the town. The area of each residential sector is 1.25 square miles and the plots vary in size from 135 square yards to 3,500 square yards. Each sector is a self-sufficient township, sub-divided into several smaller residential neighbourhoods served by various grades of community centres and equipped with civic facilities and services, such as schools, mosques, markets, dispensaries, play-grounds and parks. The main

community centre of the sector will have offices for local services, higher educational institutions, bigger mosques, a sectoral post office, hospital, police station, cinema, club and large departmental shops and store houses. The emphasis has been on the provision of facilities and services almost at the door-step.

National Park

A vast valley is earmarked as the national park area and will have institutions of national importance, such as the Atomic Research Institute, the National Health Centre, and a spacious sports centre, including an Olympic Village. It will also have exhibition grounds, zoological and botanical gardens and parks, and will provide a source of vegetables, dairy products and poultry.

Industrial Zones

Two separate zones for the location of manufacturing and light service industry have been established.

Green Belt

A special area will serve as a green belt between the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad.

Roads

The road network in Islamabad provides a suitable communication system to serve all sections of the city efficiently as it grows and develops. The network consists of varied types of roads designed for different functions—highways, principal and major roads, vehicular and feeder roads, pedestrian streets, foot-paths and green walkways. Enough space has been provided in the right-of-way of the roads to cater for future traffic demands. Special care has been taken to separate pedestrian traffic from vehicular traffic. The smaller communal unit is virtually road-risk free.

Water Supply

Adequate water supply has been ensured for an estimated population of 60,000 by tapping natural springs from the over-looking Margalla Hills. For the future bulk supply, a dam is under construction over the Sohan River, 20 miles from Rawalpindi.

Housing

Class IV servants' houses consist of at least two living rooms, a bath-room, kitchen and verandah. They are equipped with modern sanitation fittings, gas burners, electricity and running water.

Through a continuous and centrally controlled process of planning, designs for various categories of houses continue to be modified and improved in conformity with social values, climatic factors and economic conditions.

SECOND CAPITAL AT DACCA

Second Capital is being constructed in Dacca. This decision was taken by the Government during the Governor's Conference in June, 1959. Consequent upon the announcement of the Constitution that the principal seat of the national legislature would be in East Pakistan, Government decided, in 1962, to locate the capital at Tejgaon, near Dacca.

Land measuring 520 acres has been acquired in the Tejgaon Agricultural Farm area and a further 90 acres will be acquired as soon as the Agricultural Institute shifts to its new premises.

A prominent American architect has drawn up a Master Plan for the Second Capital, and is working on the detailed plans for its important buildings.

The Master Plan

The Master Plan visualises a clearly defined Reservation within the city of Dacca encompassing the government buildings and its related structures in a setting of gardens, waterways and fountains, interconnected with roads and walks. At one end of a north-south axis is the 'citadel of the assembly', and on the other end, the 'citadel of institutions', which are separated by an area of land designated as the public park. Other land uses are devoted to houses, gardens and social needs for men and their families. A portion of the land will be developed for higher residential buildings, including residences and offices for consulates. The physical condition of this region, in particular of the site, demands that in designing especial consideration be given to conditions of sun, wind, weather, rain and flood. Land allocations are greatly influenced by the above considerations and other development requirements.

Buildings

The interior of the Assembly building is divided into three zones. The central zone is the area of the Assembly. The middle zone provides inner circulation, ties together the galleries of the people and the Press and gives access to Committee Rooms and the Library. The outer zone is the area of the offices, party rooms, lounges, tea rooms and restaurant, the garden entrance to the mosque.

Other buildings include the hostels for members of the National Assembly, for ministers and the secretaries. Sites have been selected for the residences of the President, the Speaker and the Deputy Speakers. A central hospital, named after President Ayub Khan, is to be built.

Progress

All preliminary arrangements for the execution of the plan have been made, and information and statistics required by the architect for the design, development of buildings and ground, including detailed surveys for locations of buildings and related lay-out have been completed.

The work of construction of staff quarters and provision of all essential amenities in the residential area have been completed and the officers and staff of the National Assembly Secretariat have shifted to their new residence. The headquarters of the National Assembly Secretariat has also been shifted to the Second Capital and located in temporary accommodation.

Hostels for ministers, secretaries, gazetted officers and staff are being built. The Presidential square attached to the National Assembly building has reached plinth level.

A committee of high officials has been constituted to ensure speedy execution of the Second Capital works and has been given certain financial and other powers.

Architecture

The image of the Assembly building is that of a many-faceted precious stone, constructed in concrete and marble. The architecture of the hostels with deep protecting porches is the same as that of the Assembly. They are placed looking toward the Assembly, and form a triangular composition. The lake in which the buildings are reflected and the inter-weaving of lesser lakes, fountains and gardens, hold the entire composition in balance.

Other buildings related to the lake or on the adjacent ground, will be of masonry construction following the principles of architecture with respect to the influence of local conditions.

22. THE PRESS

Introductory.

Background. Muslim Press before Independence; Initial Problems.

Principal Papers. Ownership; Character; Circulation; Advertisement; News Agencies; Printing Facilities; Press Associations; Working Conditions; Training Facilities.

Government and the Press. Background; Development of Press Laws; Press Code of Ethics.

Starting with many fine traditions but very few material resources, the press in Pakistan today is a fairly well developed institution. The number of dailies exceeds one hundred. The circulation of a dozen of them, the major ones, ranges from 20,000 to about 160,000, which are high figures in a country with a low percentage of literacy and a high rural complex.

The main languages of the press are English, Bengali and Urdu. Dailies and periodicals are also published in Sindhi, Pushto and Gujrati.

There are no national papers in Pakistan for the reason that there are two national languages, and generally the people who speak one of them do not know the other. Hence even the most popular and influential of the national language papers are restricted to provincial circulation only. The papers that come nearest to being 'national' use English language because English is read in both provinces. However, their limitation is that English is read only by a minority; a petty shop-keeper or a taxi driver does not buy an English paper. Secondly, the English papers of one wing do not, because of the distance for one thing, compete with such papers of the other wing. There is only one paper, in English, which publishes simultaneously both in the wings of the country.

There is no censorship on the press. A press and publication ordinance is in force only to check unhealthy practice in journalism. The journalists are mainly governed by their own professional code of ethics.

BACKGROUND

The Pakistan press is descended directly from the Muslim press of the pre-independence sub-continent. The Muslim press was a late starter, and when it came it remained small by comparison with the Hindu and Sikh press. Yet it grew fast in influence.

A few papers, like *Al-Hilal* (Calcutta), *Comrade* and *Al-Jamiat* (Delhi) and *Zamindar* (Lahore) enjoyed country-wide readership and influenced public opinion as far back as the mid-twenties. The Muslim press gained further importance in the thirties and forties when the Muslims organized themselves around a platform. The need for a strong press to advocate the Muslim cause led to the establishment of a number of papers — among them *Azad*, a Bengali

daily (Calcutta, 1936), *The Star*, an English eveninger (Calcutta, 1937), *The Morning News*, an English morning daily (Calcutta 1942); *Dawn*, an English weekly (Delhi, 1942), later turned into a morning daily (1943). Later came the English morning daily, *The Pakistan Times* and the Urdu morning daily, *The Nawa-i-Waqt* (both from Lahore). All these papers were devoted to promoting the Muslim cause, but their financial position was not strong.

At independence, barring the last two above named, there was no major newspaper or periodical coming out in the East or the West wing owned by Muslims. The Hindu and Sikh press, barring *The Civil and Military Gazette* (Lahore), and *The Sind Observer* (Karachi), migrated to India. However, there was a similar, if small migration of Muslim journals from India into Pakistan. Among them were the English morning daily *Dawn*, which started publication from Karachi on the same date as Pakistan emerged, and Urdu dailies, *Jang* and *Anjam*, which also transferred their offices from Delhi to Karachi. *The Pakistan Times* and *Nawa-i-Waqt* expanded their scope and character to help meet the needs of a newly independent country and to fill the gap created by the loss of several. Gradually, new papers were also started.

There were initial problems. The areas forming Pakistan had been the least industrialised before independence. Printing facilities were specially scarce. Even spare parts required for printing machinery were not manufactured here. Several newspapers were printed in one press. With the migration of Muslim journalists and printing press workers from India, the problem of staffing was not very acute, but due to expanded needs, a shortage of experienced journalists was felt for some years.

General social and economic factors also had their effect. The percentage of literacy was only 13.8 in 1951; urban population according to the 1931 census was 6.5 per cent, and according to the 1951 census it was 10 per cent (increased by the influx of refugees from India into the cities and towns of Pakistan); only 200,000 persons out of 76 million were engaged in industry in 1947. These factors kept newspaper circulation and advertisement revenues low.

While the press struggled against these and other odds, there were casualties on the way. Two of the English newspapers, which had been counted among the best in the sub-continent and had enjoyed great influence, ran into economic difficulties. *The Sind Observer* was sold off by its migrating owners, and after incurring heavy losses closed down in 1953. *The Civil and Military Gazette*, which after independence had started publication from Karachi as well as Lahore, also changed hands in 1950. Within two years the Karachi edition closed down, and a year later, despite another change in ownership the Lahore edition also ceased publication. Another brave effort later on to revive it could not succeed.

On the other hand, three new English dailies started publication

between 1952 and 1955: *The Morning News*, which used to come out from Calcutta in pre-independence days, began simultaneous publication from Dacca and Karachi; *The Times of Karachi* was the conversion of an evening daily (Evening Times) into a morning paper in 1953; *The Pakistan Standard* as a party organ of the Muslim League began in 1955. The two new ventures could not last. *The Pakistan Standard* closed down within a year of first publication; the *Times of Karachi*, having started fairly well, kept the struggle on for about eight years.

PRESS TODAY

Despite many problems and setbacks the press in Pakistan has made steady progress. Circulations have increased appreciably, and, with industrial development and commercial activity, advertisement revenues have been rising well. The newspapers themselves are now far better produced and show greater professional competence. There is great improvement in the range and depth of coverage, and in technical and editorial standards.

Principal Papers

Dailies

The Press Information Department lists over a hundred dailies in publication during 1965, most of them in Urdu and Bengali followed by those in Sindhi, English, Gujrati and Pushto. A dozen of these may be called leading papers by virtue of the fact that they have large and stable readership, and therefore, a substantial following for their editorial policies. They are as follows:

Urdu : *Jang*, *Nawa-i-Waqt*, *Kohistan*, *Mashriq*, and *Imroze*.
Bengali : *Ittefaq*, *Azad*, *Dainik Pakistan*, *Pasban*.
English : *Dawn*, *The Pakistan Times*, *The Morning News* and *The Pakistan Observer*.

Among provincial or regional papers, the better known are *The Indus Times* (Hyderabad), *The Khyber Mail* (Peshawar), *Unity* (Chittagong), *Paigham* (Dacca). There are also two dailies with economic bias — *The Business Recorder* and *The Business Post*, both located in Karachi, and *The Daily Business Report* (Urdu) from Lyallpur.

TABLE 65
THE PRESS BY PERIODICITY

Press	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
Dailies	102	24	78
Biweeklies	17	6	11
Weeklies	335	78	257
Fortnightlies	156	43	113
Monthlies	654	152	502
Quarterlies	109	27	82
Periodicals, Annuals, etc.	423	193	230
	1,796	523	1,273

Source: *Press Information Department*

TABLE 66
THE PRESS BY LANGUAGE

Language	Total	East Pakistan	West Pakistan
English	556	108	448
Urdu	720	5	715
Bengali	412	410	2
Arabic	2	..	2
Gujrati	14	..	14
Pushto	21	..	21
Sindhi	60	..	60
Punjabi	1	..	1
Persian	5	..	5
Balochi	5	..	5
	1,796	523	1,273

Source: *Press Information Department*

TABLE 67
THE PRESS IN MAIN CITIES

Press	Karachi	Lahore	Dacca
Dailies	18	14	9
Biweeklies	1	4	2
Weeklies	25	41	17
Fortnightlies	20	34	4
Monthlies	69	194	13
Quarterlies	41	39	20
Total	174	326	65

Source: *Press Information Department*

Periodicals

The periodical press of Pakistan consists of weeklies, fortnightlies, monthlies and quarterlies. Their number in 1965 was 1,694. Monthlies were in the largest number (654), followed by weeklies (335), fortnightlies (156) and quarterlies (156). The monthlies are mostly literary and cultural; weeklies usually carry a strong political interest. Special interest periodicals cater to film fans, business community, women and children. There are also specialised journals on economics, engineering, science, medicine, etc. A few of them maintain high standard.

Ownership

The press in Pakistan is in private hands.

An event of special importance was that, in 1964, a National Press Trust was formed with the participation of some private

individuals. Government gave support to the idea because it promised, more than individual ownerships, to raise the standard of journalism and editorial policy. This Trust has a board of governors with a full time chairman, and secretary. It now owns eleven publications, six of them being English, Urdu and Bengali coming out from ten important cities of East and West Pakistan. These papers are: *Dailies* — *The Morning News* (Karachi and Dacca), *The Pakistan Times*, (Lahore and Rawalpindi), *Anjam* (Karachi and Peshawar), *Imroze* (Lahore and Multan), *Mashriq* (Lahore), and *Dainik Pakistan* (Dacca); *Periodicals* — *Akhbar-e-Khawateen* (Karachi) and *Sporttimes* (Lahore).

Other important groups owning more than one publication are:

(*a*) Pakistan Herald Publications Ltd: *Dawn*, English daily; *Dawn*, Gujrati daily; *Vatan*, Gujrati eveninger; *The Evening Star*, English eveninger; *The Illustrated Weekly of Pakistan*; *The Eastern Film*, monthly — all from Karachi.

(*b*) Nawa-i-Waqt Ltd: *Nawa-i-Waqt*, Urdu daily, from Lahore and Rawalpindi; *The Qandeel*, Urdu weekly, from Lahore.

(*c*) Millat Group: *Millat*, Gujrati daily; *Hurriyat*, Urdu daily; *Leader*, English eveninger — all from Karachi.

(*d*) Jang Group: *Jang*, Urdu daily (Karachi and Rawalpindi); *The Daily News*, English eveninger; *Akhbar-e-Jehan*, Urdu weekly — Karachi.

(*e*) Pakistan Observer Group: *The Pakistan Observer*, English daily; *The Chitrali*, Bengali and Urdu film weekly; *Purbadesh*, Bengali weekly — all from Dacca.

(*f*) Unity Publication Ltd: *The Unity*, English daily; *Insaf*, Bengali daily; *The Mashriq*, Urdu fortnightly — all from Chittagong.

(*g*) Chronicle Group: *The Chronicle*, English daily; *The Buniyad*, Bengali daily — both from Chittagong.

Progressive Paper limited, which owns *The Pakistan Times*, English daily, *The Imroze*, Urdu daily, and weekly *Sporttimes*, has, as noted, joined the National Press Trust.

Besides the above important group-ownerships, which are evenly divided among private ownership, partnership, private limited companies and public companies, there are individually-owned newspapers too. Their financial position, especially of the periodicals, is not as sound as that of others.

Character

The press in Pakistan had inherited a strong political character. It had fought a long battle for Pakistan's creation against far better developed and equipped organs of the British and the Hindus. Among its own people, it had to strive to sustain a high degree of political consciousness. Inevitably, therefore, the Pakistan press had, even before the independence of Pakistan, become stridently political. Lately, however, there has been a definite trend towards prominent

coverage for development activity. This has especially been due to the political stability of recent years, and the new, eminently newsworthy pace imparted to economic development.

The English language press, in spite of the restricted potential of its readership, continues to be very influential. The morning dailies are sober and give a fairly wide coverage of news, both internal and external. Many of them have arrangements with foreign syndicated services which give to Pakistani readers very competent comment from front-rank British and American journalists on events around the world.

In the Urdu and Bengali press there is, on the whole, more coverage of home affairs. Less space is given to sports, commerce and industry. The two language papers carry strong influence with the common people of both wings.

Some of the evening dailies in all languages constitute, in a limited way, the tabloid press of Pakistan. Those in English maintain a higher standard.

A field in which the Pakistan press has made little headway is that of weekly journalism. News weeklies have taken birth with normal frequency but most of them have either aimed too high for their resources or too low for the periodical readers' tastes, so that in the end they have shared a common fate. *Chatan*, *Qandeel* and *Iqdam* are three weeklies in West Pakistan that have struggled on. *Holiday*, an English political weekly, recently came out in Dacca.

Circulation

Circulation figures of newspapers are low by Western standards because of low percentage of literacy and generally low living standards. According to the Report of the Press Commission (March 1959) and to the later figures of the Audit Bureau of Circulation (ABC), the average circulation figures of leading metropolitan dailies for 1959 and 1965 in round figures were as follows:

TABLE 68
AVERAGE CIRCULATION OF LEADING DAILES

Papers	Circulation	
	1959	1965
Jang (Urdu, — Karachi, Rawalpindi)	46,800	158,500
Nawa-i-Waqt (Urdu — Lahore, Rawalpindi)	18,870	58,800
The Pakistan Times (English — Lahore, Rawalpindi)	34,850	42,300
Dawn (English — Karachi)	38,100	38,650
The Morning News (English — Dacca, Karachi)	19,100	37,500
Imroze (Urdu — Lahore, Multan)	28,850	26,100
Azad (Bengali — Dacca)	20,150	20,000
The Pakistan Observer (English — Dacca)	10,500	17,400
Anjam (Urdu — Karachi, Peshawar)	25,000	Not Available

Increased pace of economic activity, together with the rise in literacy, have boosted the circulation of certain newspapers in recent times. *Jang* has crossed the 150,000 mark; *Nawa-i-Waqt*, the *Pakistan Observer*, and the *Morning News* have considerably increased. The *Pakistan Times* has picked up well with the establishment of its Rawalpindi edition. New Urdu dailies, *Mashriq* and *Kohistan*, both of Lahore, have also established good circulations.

Advertising

Whatever the circulation, advertisements remain the main source of newspaper revenue. An analysis of the newspapers in Pakistan made in 1956 and again in 1962 revealed the following daily averages of advertisements.

TABLE 69
DAILY AVERAGE OF ADVERTISEMENT

	Average of June 1956	Average of June 1962
	% age	% age
Dawn	36.6	38.9
The Pakistan Times	16.9	30.4
The Pakistan Observer	13.7	27.2
The Morning News (Karachi only)	4.9	16.8
Jang	24.2	15.2

There has been a further increase in advertisement revenue since then. Government itself is an important advertiser. The ratio of revenue from its advertisement is roughly 25 per cent of the total.

News Agencies

There are three Pakistani news agencies — The Associated Press of Pakistan (APP), The Pakistan Press Association (PAA) and the United Press of Pakistan (UPP).

The APP, originally formed from a branch of the Associated Press of India (API) and established as a private Trust in 1948, is now administered by the government. For foreign news coverage it has entered into an agreement with Reuters. It also runs a feature service.

The PPA, which began as a splinter of APP in 1957, has developed into a sizeable news agency. It has arrangements with Agence France Presse (AFP) and DPA, a German News Agency. It also maintains a feature service.

The UPP, founded in 1949, has a news exchange agreement with the United Press International (UPI). Unlike the other two agencies, it still works on the hand-delivery system.

Some newspapers subscribe to foreign feature services namely, Observer, New York Herald Tribune, New York Times, and Express Services.

Most of the national news agencies and newspapers have correspondents and stringers in important world capitals.

All major foreign news agencies such as Reuters, UPI, AFP, Tass and NCNA have correspondents in Pakistan.

A few foreign papers — *New York Times*, *The Times* (London), *Globe and Mail* (Toronto), *Daily Telegraph* (London), and the American magazines, *Time*, *Newsweek* and *Life* have correspondents or stringers in Pakistan.

Printing Facilities

Apart from government presses, only a few of the most influential newspapers, and some other private printing establishments, have been able to import printing machinery. The urgent need for adequate printing facilities is being increasingly met through liberal grants of licences and even loans. Newspapers had long been using printing presses that were very old and uneconomical. Only recently have they acquired replacements.

Press Associations

There are three main press organisations in the country: *The All Pakistan Newspaper Society* (APNS), *The Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors* (CPNE) and *The Pakistan Federal Union of Journalists* (PFUJ). In addition there are local bodies of journalists in Karachi, Lahore, Dacca, Rawalpindi and in some other major towns. Press clubs have been established in almost all big cities and towns.

Working Conditions

Working conditions of journalists remained unsatisfactory for a long time. Salaries were meagre and other facilities negligible and there was no security of service.

On the recommendation of the Press Commission appointed by the Government to look into the state of the newspaper industry and the working conditions of the journalists, the present Government promulgated the Working Journalists (Conditions of Service) Ordinance on April 27, 1960. It conferred on the journalists a series of benefits. Compulsory provident funds were required, the working week was fixed at 42 hours, employers were required to give two months notice (or two months pay in lieu) if they wanted to terminate the service of a journalist of three or more years' standing. Other benefits included earned leave on full pay in proportion to length of service, medical leave on half pay on similar basis, and casual leave.

To facilitate the settlement of disputes between journalists and management, the Ordinance made the Industrial Disputes Ordinance (1959) applicable to working journalists. This latter ordinance provides machinery for the settlement of strikes and adjudication of labour disputes by an Industrial Court. Any establishment employing 20 or more journalists comes under the purview of the Industrial Courts.

In accordance with a provision of the Ordinance, a Wage Board was set up which fixed scales of pay for different categories of news-

paper workers. It recommended: (i) abolishment of the distinction between English and other languages papers in the matter of wages of working journalists; (ii) 'fringe benefits' for journalists: dearness allowance, conveyance allowance, charge allowance, night shift or transport allowance, entertainment allowance and outfit allowance, depending upon the duties they perform; (iii) payment to apprentices (at half the rate of working journalists); (iv) payment of gratuity in the event of dismissal after three years of continuous service, or of retirement after 25 years of service, or of death; (v) entitlement to legal and medical expenses.

All newspaper establishments are bound by the Wage Board decisions.

Lately, provision has been made for recruitment of qualified working journalists to the Central Information Service of the Government.

Training

To meet the increasing demand for trained journalists, classes in journalism were started in the Universities of Karachi, Sind, and Dacca between the years 1955 and 1962. The Punjab University started a diploma course in Journalism as early as 1940. The Sind University, which had started a two-year degree course in 1955, later discontinued it due to insufficient response. The Punjab and Karachi Universities give a post-graduate degree in Journalism. The Dacca University offers a one year diploma course.

Side by side with regular lectures and practice in the class, students of journalism get practical training in newspapers and news agencies, and also in Radio Pakistan offices.

GOVERNMENT AND THE PRESS

The Pakistan press, with handicaps and shortcomings, has played, and continues to play a crucial role in the task of national reconstruction. The area of press freedom has been widened and government's endeavour has been to put newspapers on a more solid economic footing to enable it to play its role more effectively. Action against newspapers by the present Government has been rare. The possibilities of interference with the day-to-day working of the press have been eliminated by the Press Laws presently in force.

President Ayub, in an observation on the role of press in the life of the nation, said*: "God gave man the power to think. No man can, therefore, deny to another the full and free use of that power. Freedom of thought is an inalienable right of man.... However, in order to protect the freedom of thought of all, it became imperative to insist by legal provision on the requirement of certain standard requirements to ensure responsibility among those who have the mighty instrument of a printing press under their control." The Press Laws, as framed and amended by his government aim to conform to this condition.

*Address to the Ninth Session of the Commonwealth Press Conference, October 1961.

Development of Press Laws

For several years after independence, Pakistan press continued to be governed by the laws enacted by the British to control the press of pre-independence days.

Two of these laws (Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867), and the Press (Emergency Powers Act, 1931) dealt with such matters as the filing of declarations for newspapers and journals, and the forfeiture of security deposits in case any paper offended established authority. Some of the provisions of these Acts were very stringent and were open to abuse. On April 26, 1960, acting on the recommendations of the Press Commission, the Government replaced these two legislations with a new consolidated Press and Publications Ordinance, 1960.

One of the significant features of the new Ordinance was that it prohibited executive authority from demanding a security deposit from a newspaper or a printing press or confiscating a deposit previously made (punitive measures commonly taken against newspapers) without the express sanction of the judiciary. It provided that no notice for a security, or the forfeiture of one, could be served 'unless a reference in the prescribed manner has been made to the sessions judge within whose jurisdiction the press or the newspaper is situated, and the sessions judge has expressed his opinion that the words, signs or visible representation were of the nature described in sub-section (1) of Section 23'. The offences described in this sub-section included incitement to the commission of violent action, creation of feelings of ill-will in one group of citizens against another, and creating hatred, contempt or disaffection towards the lawful government of the country, or any other administration of the citizens. Clear provisos were added to prevent loose interpretation of this sub-section. For instance, it was made clear in the last instance that comments expressing disapprobation of any measure of the government with a view to obtaining their alteration by lawful means remained above board. By way of an additional safeguard, newspapers were entitled to petition the High Court to set aside an order demanding fresh security, or forfeiture of an existing one.

The Press and Publications Ordinance, 1960, was substantially amended in September 1963. A new-clause was inserted which required the printer, publisher and editor of any book or newspaper to publish only such proceedings of the National Assembly, Provincial Assembly, or of a court of law other than the supreme court or other judicial body or tribunal, as were duly certified for publication by the presiding officer. The press notes and handouts issued by the central or provincial governments were also required to be published in full. The Ordinance provided certain penalties to the offenders of this section or any orders and directions made thereunder.

Another clause inserted empowered the government to set up a commission to enquire into the affairs of any printing press or news-

paper generally, and especially to find out if —

(*a*) The printing press of the newspaper is in receipt of any financial aid in cash, kind or otherwise.

(*b*) Any such financial aid is being received from citizens of Pakistan or from or through persons who are not such citizens.

(*c*) Funds are being properly raised and utilised and accounts regularly maintained.

(*d*) Adequate arrangements exist for running the establishment, and relations between the management, and employees are harmonious and satisfactory.

The Commission was given the powers of a Civil Court trying a suit under the code of civil procedure in matters connected with summoning and enforcing attendance of any person, examining him on oath, production of documents and receiving of evidence on oath.

A keeper of a printing press or a publisher of a newspaper whose declaration was suspended or annulled could, however, file an appeal. For the disposal of appeals, the Government was required to constitute one or more tribunals consisting of three members: the judge of a High Court or Supreme Court to be the chairman; one of the remaining two members to be a government servant; and the third, a nominated representative of journalists or editors.

In deference to some critical reaction to the new provisions of the Ordinance, the Government volunteered a one-month moratorium on it, beginning from September 11, 1963. During this period the press was asked to discuss its grievances with representatives of the Government with a view to making suitable amendments in the Ordinance. A joint conference of 12 members, comprising four representatives each of the organisations of publishers, editors and working journalists was held, which set up a joint committee to draw up a detailed memorandum containing its criticism of the Ordinance. The Joint Committee later held meetings with the ministers concerned, and finally with the President. The Government later announced substantial modifications in the Ordinance.

A day before the expiry of the one-month moratorium the Press and Publications (Amendment) Ordinance of 1963 was replaced by a new one. Under it, reporting of the proceedings of the legislatures and the High Courts was freed from earlier requirements; newspapers were no longer obliged to publish government handouts, and only such press notes had to be published that pertained to the region in which the daily newspaper was located. The powers assumed by government to appoint commissions of enquiry to investigate whether a press or a newspaper was raising and disbursing funds properly, being run efficiently, and maintaining harmonious relations between the management and employees, were largely given up. Such commissions could be appointed but their composition was defined and scope restricted to enquiring whether a press or a newspaper was receiving foreign subsidy or raising funds through undesir-

able methods. Safeguards in respect of appeals, the nature of the appellate tribunal, and the time-limit within which inquiry even on this limited scope must be completed, were provided.

The outstanding feature of the new law was the provision that no penal order against a printing press or a newspaper would be made except after giving the person concerned an opportunity of being heard by the officer or authority making the order. This ordinance was further liberalised on November 29, 1964.

Press Code of Ethics

The efforts to evolve a system in which effective self-control assures freedom and protection to all right-minded journalists went on for a year during 1963 and 1964. The dialogue between the Government and the journalists ultimately led to the adoption of a voluntary code of ethics by the Council of Pakistan Newspaper Editors(CPNE) on 4th July 1964. Machinery was established by the press itself to regulate effectively its conduct, in accordance with a given code.

The code lays down that the 'profession of journalism should not be used as an instrument to serve personal or anti-social ends or interests which are not compatible with the profession, nor should it be used to the detriment of the public interest'. It prohibits the publication of 'anything apt to create ill-will between different sections of the people'. Such portions of the National and Provincial Assemblies' proceedings as the Speaker may have ordered to be expunged from the records would not be published and fair coverage would be given to all sections of the House. Similarly, court reporting would be fair, balanced and objective. In case of both labour and students, the press would not publish anything which may encourage agitational activity among them or lead to strikes. No newspaper will accept in any form or shape any financial aid or pecuniary advantage or obligation from or on behalf of any foreign country or concern, excluding of course, paid advertisements appearing as such. The journalists will protect the secrecy of their sources and respect confidence placed in them.

The code is being implemented through a Court of Honour whose verdict is binding on all signatories and whose chairman has the power to initiate proceedings *suo moto* in connection with any breach of the code by a signatory. A retired Judge of the Supreme Court has provisionally accepted the office of chairman; the other six members of the Court are editors chosen by the journalists themselves. It is stipulated that the aggrieved party — whether it be government or a private individual — will refrain from taking any other action after it has forwarded a complaint to the Court of Honour. In cases of a serious offence, the Court can consider asking the competent organisation to expel the offending newspaper from the press organisation to which it belongs, or to withdraw its protection from it. The findings of the Court of Honour on any complaint submitted to it will

be issued in the form of a communique which it will be obligatory on all signatories to publish.

Already, since its establishment, the Court of Honour has given awards in several cases.

The Press Code of Ethics is thus the most deliberate effort so far to regulate press-government relations. On its adoption, President Ayub told the CPNE: "If your Court of Honour operates well, there should be no need to take recourse to other laws. In course of time, these laws will wither away."

23. BROADCASTING & TELEVISION

SOUND BROADCASTING

Organisation. The Directorate-General and its Subordinate Offices.

Development. Inheritance; Early Measures: *Development through the Five-Year Plans.*

Programmes. News; Informative and Entertainment Programmes: *Special Interest Programmes ;* Music.

Services. Commercial Service; External Services; Transcription Service; Monitoring.

Improvement Measures. Audience Research; Talent Scouting; Advisory Committees; Broadcasting Committee.

Training. Publications.

TELEVISION

Beginnings. Set Count. Limitations.

Programmes. Types of Programmes and Percentages; News; Programme Workshop; Advertising.

Future Plan. New Stations; Equipage; Coverage.

Training Institute.

Organisation

Sound broadcasting is exclusively a State activity. There is a Directorate-General of Radio Pakistan, attached to the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. It has 34 subordinate offices which include the ten regional broadcasting stations, at Dacca, Chittagong, Rajshahi, and Sylhet in the East wing, and at Karachi, Hyderabad, Quetta, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Peshawar in the west, each headed by a Regional Director. Operational units also include the External Services, the Central News Organisation, the Commercial Service, the Transcription Service, the Monitoring Department, the Staff Training Department and the Technical Training School, the last named headed by a Principal and the others by a Director each. There is also a Radio Publications Unit. The overall head is a Director-General who is assisted by a Joint Director-General, two deputies and a Chief Engineer.

DEVELOPMENT

Pakistan inherited only three regional stations: one 5 kw medium wave station at Lahore, one 10 kw medium wave station at Peshawar and one 5 kw medium wave station at Dacca. These stations had a comparatively small range and were primarily intended for meeting local needs. Karachi station came on the air on the first independence anniversary of Pakistan in 1948, with two low powered transmitters, one short wave and another medium wave. Subsequently, these low power transmitters were replaced by a transmitter of 10 kw medium wave, set up at Karachi with a coverage radius of 60 to 80 miles. At Dacca, a 7.5 kw short wave transmitter

was installed in 1949 so that programmes broadcast from Dacca could be heard in West Pakistan.

The next stage was the installation at Karachi of two powerful short wave transmitters, each of 50 kw which were brought into operation on 14th August, 1949. These two transmitters not only covered the two wings but also a number of Middle Eastern, European and Far Eastern countries. With the opening of a station at Rawalpindi in 1950, the number of stations reached five.

The details of the stations and their strength in 1950 were as follows :

Karachi:	10 kw/mw: 363.6 meters (830 kc/3)
	Two 50 kw short wave.
Lahore:	5 kw/mw: 276 meters (1086 kc/s).
Peshawar:	10 kw/mw: 476.9 meters (629 kc/s).
Dacca:	5 kw/mw: 257.1 meters (1167 kc/s).
Rawalpindi:	7.5 k.w. — short waves, 0.1 kw/mw (206 meters).

These five regional stations, aided by eight ancillary transmitters had a total output of 137.6 kilowatts and were putting out 105 programme hours daily in 17 languages.

This development involved a capital outlay of about 10 million rupees by 1955.

By the end of 1960, there were 10 broadcasting stations.

The number of medium and short wave transmitters had reached 19 with a power of 204 kw, which broadcast for 143 hours daily in 17 languages.

During the Second Plan period, *i.e.* 1960-65, the radio network, based on a combination of short and medium wave transmitters was expanded. By 1965, there were full-fledged broadcasting facilities at Karachi, Hyderabad, Quetta, Lahore, Peshawar, Rawalpindi Islamabad, Dacca, Rajshahi and Chittagong. In addition there was a relaying station at Sylhet. The coverage of the primary service through the medium wave was extended to about 25 per cent of the geographical area and about 62 per cent of the population in West Pakistan. In East Pakistan, the coverage was about 95 per cent in respect of both physical space and population. It is planned to increase medium wave coverage in West Pakistan to 88 per cent of the population and to 98 per cent in East Pakistan by the end of the Plan period. One 100 kw medium wave transmitter each was installed at Dacca and Lahore. For short wave transmission, two 100 kw transmitters were installed at Islamabad. Their aerial system is under construction at present. Work on one 100 kw short wave transmitter at Dacca is also in hand. The transmitter is expected to be in operation by the end of 1967.

By the end of the Plan period, the country had 10 transmitting stations and 29 transmitters of 664.5 kw power, as compared to 19 transmitters of 204 kw power in 1960.

Radio Pakistan revenues increased from Rs 2.7 million in 1959-60 to Rs 7.1 million in 1964-65.

The Third Plan has provided Rs 90 million for development (against the First Plan's Rs 25 million and the Second Plan's Rs 40 million).

The objective of the Third Plan is to continue establishment of a reliable medium wave coverage for the whole of the country and to expand the present short wave facilities to provide more internal secondary service to link up East and West Pakistan and to radiate external services effectively through stronger singnals. It is proposed to cover the whole of the remaining East Pakistan area and population; and in West Pakistan to extend the area coverage to 65 per cent and population coverage to 85 per cent.

Other targets include the following:

- A full-fledged medium wave station at Multan of 100 kw.
- A relaying station of 10 kw each at Khairpur and Khulna.
- A 100 kw medium wave transmitter at both Quetta and Hyderabad.
- One 1,000 kw medium wave transmitter at both Dacca and Islamabad.
- Two 250 kw short wave transmitters added to the existing set-up at Islamabad.
- The broadcasting house at Islamabad, now under construction, to be completed and a new broadcasting house erected in Peshawar.
- Required replacements and improvements and supporting equipment at most existing stations to be provided.
- Training facilities for all categories of staff to be expanded.
- Separate studios for transcription services at Lahore, Dacca and Karachi to be constructed.
- A central stores depot at Chittagong and a laboratory and workshop at Islamabad.
- For rural areas, 10,000 listening sets to be distributed under the Rural Works Programme.

Some progress has been made with the inception of the electronics industry to help provide a large number of radio receivers.

The proposals under the Third Plan will raise the number of transmitting stations to 14, of transmitters to 36, and their power to 3,680 kw.

PROGRAMMES

All full-fledged stations of Radio Pakistan broadcast programmes of a total duration of about ten hours per day. These programmes may be divided into the following main categories:

(*a*) News.
(*b*) Other information programmes, such as talks, discussions, news-reels and entertainment programmes, (skits, feature and plays).
(*c*) Music.
(*d*) Outside broadcasts and relays.

News

Radio Pakistan broadcasts news in 17 languages. The home news bulletins are broadcast in the national languages and also languages of the various regions. In addition, two English bulletins are broadcast daily. The frequency of news broadcasts in the national languages was increased after the recent emergency and now Radio Pakistan broadcasts six bulletins each in Urdu and Bengali. In pursuance of the objective to make it a people's medium the frequency of English bulletins was reduced from four to two per day. The frequency of regional language bulletins is as follows:

Kashmiri	5	Sindhi	2
Pushto	4	Baluchi	2

In addition, local news bulletins in national and regional languages are broadcast by every station. These newscasts are based on messages received from national and international news agencies, reports of Radio Pakistan's correspondents located at the different stations and material collected by the Regional Radio News Units. A daily news commentary in Urdu and Bengali is broadcast on the national hook-up immediately after main evening news bulletins to interpret and provide background for major national and international events.

Informative/Entertainment Programmes

Talks, discussions, newsreels and entertainment features and skits form 50 per cent of the radio broadcasts. Among informative programmes more time is given to features and documentary programmes than straight talks. Apart from current events, projects, institutions, etc., these programmes are also classified according to special themes or listeners' targets, namely, religious, educational, children's, women's, for the rural listeners and for the armed forces.

Religious Programmes

For the Muslims, the day begins with recitation from the holy Qu'ran with Bengali/Urdu translation, followed by talks and discussions relating Qu'ranic teaching to some day-to-day problems of individual and community life. These programmes are broadcast on the provincial hook-up. There are also local talks and features on religious subjects. Special programmes are broadcast on important national and religious days, such as Pakistan Day, Independence Day, Eids, Quaid-i-Azam's birth anniversary, Moharram, the first 12 days of Rabi-ul-Awwal, the month of Ramzan, and the anniversaries of the four Caliphs and other saints and reformers. Programmes are also regularly arranged to cater to the needs of the main religious minorities.

Educational Broadcasts

Programmes are regularly arranged by the different stations for both school and university students. The school broadcast programmes are intended both for enrichment and instructional purposes. These programmes are now broadcast by all stations of Radio Pakistan except Rawalpindi and Peshawar. The average frequency

of these programmes is four per week. A weekly University Magazine of 30 minutes duration is radiated by all stations. The Lahore Station was expected to start a regular daily programme of 30 minutes duration for university students on its second channel with effect from 23rd March, 1967.

Children's Programmes

A weekly programme of children of half or one hour is broadcast by almost all the stations. In addition, all stations broadcast a bedtime story everyday. The children's programmes consist of miscellaneous items, stories, skits, playlets, songs, talks and features of inspirational or informative character. The programmes are mostly presented by children themselves conducted and assisted by stock characters.

Women's Programmes

Special programmes for women are usually an half-hour weekly feature at most stations. Themes of special interest to women's, like family budgeting, cooking, knitting, bringing up children, and career for women are interestingly presented.

Rural Listeners Programmes

A programme for rural listeners (called Basic Democracies Programme) is broadcast daily from almost all stations, ranging in duration from 15 minutes in Karachi to one hour in Peshawar. These programmes deal with day to day problems of the agricultural population and other classes in rural areas such as care of livestock, use of artificial manure, cottage industries, improved methods of cultivation. Recently, special effort has been made to secure greater participation in the programme for agriculturists, members of Basic Democracies, persons engaged in rural development work, and such others by taking tape-recorders to the interior. Regular farm broadcasts (30 minutes daily) from 5 major stations started from December 1,1966 under a directive from the President — they are broadcast in the language of the region and provide information for the enlightenment of farmers with a view to increasing food production in the country. These are planned and presented with the active co-operation of the departments of agriculture and the two major agricultural universities of the country.

The union councils have community listening centres, so that these programmes get a wide and interested audience.

Forces Programme

A forces programme is a daily half-hour feature from all stations. This also is a composite programme catering to the special interests and presented by persons with army experience.

Music

Music forms the remaining part of the broadcasting time. The percentage of time taken at different stations varies between 60 to 75. Again, different types of music occupy varying percentages of

the total time for music at different stations. Roughly it is as follows :

Classical and light classical music.	5 to 20 per cent
Light music, like *qawwali*, *ghazal* and *geet*.	30 to 45 ,,
Folk music.	20 to 30 ,,
Film songs and other commercial-purpose recorded music.	15 to 20 ,,

SERVICES

Commercial Service

Commercial service is so called from the fact that its purpose is to earn revenue by advertising commercial products in between popular music and other items. The service was started in November, 1961 from 12.00 noon to 1.00 p.m. and was carried on all five transmitters of Karachi.

Now it has been extended to 3 hours and 10 minutes on week-days and 3 hour and 40 minutes on Sundays. Programmes for housewives, folk songs of various regions of Pakistan, Pakistani film music and various other items have been introduced and the scope of the sponsored programmes widened.

The popularity of the service may be judged from the fact that Radio Pakistan was receiving nearly 2,000 letters a month in the year 1961-62 in respect to it.

External Services

Radio Pakistan operates ten external services and two general overseas news bulletins, to the Middle East and Far East, broadcasting in the language of the target countries. The ten services are to the U.K., East and South East Africa, Burma, Afghanistan, Arabian Peninsula, South-East Asia, Indonesia, South Asia, Iran and Turkey. A new small service of 15 minutes in the Swahili language has been started since January 1966, as a part of the South East African Service. The objectives of these services are to create a better appreciation of Pakistan's problems, policies and achievements and to counter adverse propaganda among people of these regions (including Pakistanis residing there) who are interested in Pakistan. The main items of broadcast are news and commentary on topical issue.

Transcription Service

Set up in 1960, the main function of the Transcription service is to collect authentic broadcasting material through research and survey on past and present aspects of Pakistani life and culture and project it on suitable occasions at home and abroad through sound pictures. Accordingly, it supplies background material to foreign broadcasting organisations and, within the country, to co-ordinate inter-station exchange of programmes.

The Department has by now 75 countries on its mailing list, and produces programmes in English, French, Spanish, Arabic, Persian and Urdu. During 1965-66 the Service supplied more than 12,000 minutes of recordings to various foreign countries and organisations and 25,000 minutes of recordings to home stations.

One of the most important projects taken in hand by this Department was the recording of theatre music which has been dying out for want of patronage. Efforts were made to collect from all over the country recordings of outstanding personalities. Recordings of those who have passed away have also been collected and are preserved in the archives section of the library.

The number of artists (classical, light and folk) represented in the library is now about 300. Recordings of about 944 deceased personalities including administrators, poets, literateurs and musicians have been preserved in the archives.

Monitoring

The Director of Monitoring provides government with the latest news and views broadcast by foreign radio stations directed to this country or making reference to this country. Other language broadcasts are translated into English before distribution.

IMPROVEMENT IN BROADCASTING

Constant efforts are made to effect various improvements in programmes and keep it as responsive to the wishes and convenience of audiences as possible.

Audience Research

Audience research on scientific lines is being developed and made a continuous activity. A director of listener research at headquarters guides and co-ordinates. Listener research units have also been set up at all major stations.

Talent Scouting

A Talent Utilisation Board visits different parts of the country in search of talent. Audition and other tests are given and a selected list is prepared. The Board comprises experts taken both from within and outside the radio organisation.

Advisory Committees

An Advisory Committee of six to ten members is constituted at every regional station of Radio Pakistan, comprising official and non-official members. The idea is to associate representatives of public opinion with the planning of programmes so as to make the latter as nearly responsive to the requirements of the area and reactions of the people as possible. The Committee meets at least once a year under the chairmanship of the Director-General. It also appoints where necessary sub-committees or subject matter committees.

Broadcasting Committee

A Broadcasting Committee was appointed by the President in November 1965, to go into all aspects of broadcasting in the country and recommend measures for improvement. The Committee drew up a long questionnaire covering the objectives of broadcasting, the organisation, personnel and emoluments, the types and composition of programmes and other related matters. The questionnaire was sent to members of the public, the committee then toured the country and interviewed individuals. It is now compiling its findings and recommendations.

Training

Radio Pakistan has set up a technical training school, and the first general course was inaugurated in February, 1961. Lectures are arranged on various technical problems which a programme producer has to face in his daily assignments. There are courses on a number of other broadcasting activities, such as listeners' research, development of drama, history of Pakistani music, broadcasting systems in other countries, and television as a new medium of mass communication. The Training School also arranges preliminary courses in radio technology, and holds seminars whose recommendations, as finally formulated, are circulated to all stations for implementation.

Publications

Radio Pakistan publishes its fortnightly or monthly programmes in Bengali, Urdu, English, Arabic, Persian and Burmese and they contain extracts from some of the important programmes broadcast.

TELEVISION

Television in Pakistan is just a little over two years old. In October 1964, the Government of Pakistan decided to establish a Television Corporation for introducing a general purpose television service in the country. As the formation of such an organisation needed some time, it was decided to make a beginning on a modest scale and operate two pilot TV stations at Lahore and Dacca. Accordingly, the Government entered into an agreement with the Nippon Electric Company of Japan to operate these two pilot stations on an experimental basis for a period of 90 days.

In February 1965, a Television Promoters Company with an authorised capital of Rs 50 million was set up to operate the two television stations pending the formation of a Television Corporation. In this company, the Government of Pakistan holds the controlling interest. The other shareholders are the Japanese company, namely the Nippon Electric Company and Thomson Television (International) Limited of England whose combined experience in the fields of engineering, programming and sales promotion is at the disposal of the Company. The Television Promoters Company took over these two pilot stations and is responsible for their operation in every respect, including the selling of advertising time.

The Lahore Station was inaugurated in November and the Dacca Station in December, 1964. Both transmit a three hour programme six days a week. A pilot transmission at Islamabad-Rawalpindi also went on the air when the President inaugurated the Central Training Institute at Chaklala on 14th January, 1967. It broadcasts regular programmes for three hours a day, six days a week.

Television has reached over 15 thousand homes. On a very conservative basis, the viewership is estimated at 10 persons per set. Therefore, in Lahore and Dacca together over 150,000 people watch television six nights a week.

The transmitters of the pilot stations in Lahore and Dacca are each of 300 watts power with an effective primary reception range of 10 miles radius with a fringe reception radius of 15 miles. However, the Lahore programmes are being watched some 40 miles away at Gujranwala. The picture quality in both Lahore and Dacca is excellent. The channel used in Lahore and Dacca is number 9, operating on 202-209 megacycles.

Set Count

Television began in Pakistan with 1,000 sets supplied by the Nippon Electric Company of Japan. Of these, 200 sets each for Lahore and Dacca were supplied free for community viewing; the rest were sold in the market. Since then, the number of TV sets has gone up considerably and now there are over 15 thousand TV sets in these two cities. This figure does not include numerous other TV sets imported as personal baggage or those that were imported on bonus vouchers.

The Government has decided that from now onward all television sets will be imported on bonus vouchers and no commercial licence will be issued for this item. Individual dealers can import as many sets as they desire on bonus vouchers. On these sets there will be neither any import duty nor purchase tax. This has resulted in the arrival of TV sets from both the Western countries and those of the socialist bloc. In addition, nine large business organisations, six in West and three in East Pakistan have been licensed to assemble TV sets in Pakistan from imported components.

Format

At present the Television Station telecasts programmes for three hours every day, excluding Mondays. Since there is only one studio from which indigenous programmes are telecast, it is necessary to run a film after every live programme to enable changes to be made in the studio for the next live production.

Starting with 40 per cent live 60 per cent filmed programmes the ratio has now been reversed at both stations. The 40 per cent film portion is imported because of the lack of facilities in Pakistan for the production of programmes for television on 16 mm film. When this becomes available in Pakistan, the possibility of doing away with imported programmes can be considered. It is not also technically possible at present to record programmes outside Lahore and Dacca for screening from these two stations.

The restriction to six days a week is imposed for lack of technical facilities and adequate numbers of trained personnel. The process of increasing technical facilities and trained personnel is bound to be slow, because expensive. The same holds good for keeping the programmes restricted to three hours.

All live programmes are planned and produced and the stations are operated entirely by Pakistani personnel.

PROGRAMMES

The programme service includes the following categories:

- Educative and informative.
- Programmes on development activities.
- Programmes on national integration.
- Entertainment programmes.
- Special programmes for children, women, and for school and college students.

Special effort is made to ensure that the programmes, which are viewed at home, promote the values, and hurt no susceptibilities.

The percentage of various categories of programmes transmitted are as follows:

	Dacca	Lahore
Live Programmes	56.9	62.2
Filmed Programmes	39.8	34.9
Music	12.9	14.2
Drama	6.05	10.8
News	11.3	15
Quiz Programmes	4.8	5.04
Women's Programmes	1.2	1.07
Children's Programmes	5.2	2.8
Dance	1.04	nil

The above percentages are based on transmissions during September 1966.

News

Both television stations put out two news bulletins of 10 minutes each, English and Urdu from Lahore and English and Bengali from Dacca. The bulletins give the latest national and international news with suitable filmed and still photograph inserts. Both stations provide movie film coverage in their bulletins not only about events taking place in Dacca or Lahore but also in other towns of Pakistan. The camera teams of the news organizations gave prompt coverage of each stage of the general election of 1964-65. The installation of the President at the start of his new term of office, the proceedings of the National and Provincial Assemblies, the cyclones and flood havocs in East Pakistan, and the fighting in the Rann of Kutch. Some of these films were borrowed by foreign television organisations for telecasting over European and American television networks.

Programme Workshop

A detailed analysis of the programmes is essential to judge its merits and demerits. To do that and also to undertake research in programme ideas, production techniques and modes of presentation to evolve fresh programmes particularly suited to television and, lastly, to produce model programmes at the stations so that the standard of programme can come in line with the general television standard in the country, it has been decided to set-up a programme workshop independently of any station and directly under the supervision of the

headquarters. Its establishment is expected to go a long way in improving the general standard of television in Pakistan.

Advertising

Due to the high cost of programme production, it was decided to sustain it by advertising, which could supply the necessary funds to support production of quality programmes. Ten minutes of advertisement is allowed per hour. Although it has not been possible to fill it completely so far, the duration of advertisements is steadily increasing with the increase in the television set-count at Lahore and Dacca and calculated on the basis of homes reached it was an inexpensive medium. Government felt that sufficient potential advertising revenue would be available for television in Pakistan. A sales office was established in Karachi and 'time' was made available to advertisers for promoting sales and service.

Broadly, the commercials come in the following categories: Spot advertising, live commercials, sponsored live programmes and sponsored filmed programmes. Spot advertising is in the form of (*a*) film with sound, (*b*) slide with sound on tape, (*c*) telop with sound on tape. The duration of spot commercials is 7, 15, 30, 45, or 60 seconds. Live commercials are tramsmitted in featurised serials entitled *Zaaviyai* from Lahore and *Gharoa* from Dacca. In these dramatised programmes, the advertisement appears as a recommendation from the characters. Sponsored live programmes are of 15, 30, 45 or 60 minute duration. The commercials come usually at the beginning and the end of the programme, linking the programme directly with the product. Filmed programmes are also offered for sponsoring.

Future Plans

The basic scheme of three main stations at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore — supported by three satellite stations — at Islamabad, Peshawar and Chittagong — was approved by the Central Development Working Party of the Planning Commission in May 1965, which sanctioned an allocation of Rs 55 million for the Television Project during the Third Five-Year Plan—Rs 15 million in the public sector and Rs 40 million in the private sector.

Next to have a television station is Karachi. It is expected to go on the air by October, 1967. The TV Station at Karachi, which will be Pakistan's first full-fledged station with all the latest production facilities, including video tape recorders, will have a transmitter of six-kilowatt power, providing excellent service around a radius of 40 miles. The channel for Karachi station will be Number 4, transmitting on 61-68 megacycles. During 1967 it is proposed to replace pilot stations at Dacca and Lahore with full-fledged TV stations. Thereafter, television will also reach Chittagong in East Pakistan and Peshawar in West Pakistan. During the Third Plan period ending 1970, it is proposed to set up microwave links and, in the Fourth Plan, main TV stations at Rajshahi, Multan and Khulna and satellite stations at Lyallpur, Comilla and Hyderabad.

Three main stations at Lahore, Dacca and Karachi will be full-fledged programme-producing centres, whereas the other stations at Islamabad, Chittagong and Peshawar will have limited programme production facilities to give local colour, but will mostly relay the programmes of the main stations. Lahore will feed Islamabad and Peshawar through translators; similarly in East Pakistan, Chittagong will be linked up through microwave to relay the programmes of Dacca. Initially programmes would be sent to the satellite stations on films and tapes.

Peshawar will be linked with Islamabad through translators, as also Islamabad with Lahore. Dacca and Chittagong would be linked through microwave to be rented from Telephone and Telegraph Department.

Equipage

The main stations will have modest but fairly comprehensive programme production facilities for 30 to 40 hours programming per week. Each will have two studios, and a 5 kw transmitter. They will be provided with the necessary recording, telecine, film processing and editing equipment. They will have outside coverage facilities on cine cameras. In due course they could be provided with video taperecorders. First class coverage from these stations will extend to a radius of about 30 to 40 miles from the Transmitting station.

The Satellite stations will be equipped with limited programme production facilities. They will have 5 kw transmitters and will be provided with projection and recording facilities.

Coverage

The coverage will extend beyond the towns where TV transmitters will be placed. Villages and community centres lying within a radius of about 40 miles around the transmitters will be able to receive television programmes.

Rebroadcast Stations

Television translators or rebroadcast stations will be placed *en route* wherever possible to extend the coverage. It will also be possible to provide television service to a large portion of the rural population both in East and West Pakistan through this system. An extensive study for the feasibility of television translators is to be undertaken soon.

A tentative prespective plan to expand television coverage through micro-wave links during 1970-1985 is under consideration. If this plan is found practical and finally accepted coverage of population in million through TV programmes will be as follows:

	1965-70	1970-75	1975-80	1980-85
East Pakistan	10.3	18.0	9.0	5.0
West Pakistan	10.4	11.3	3.9	.6
	20.7	29.3	12.9	5.6

Training Institute

In phasing out the Television project, one of the principal factors that has been kept in view is the availability of trained personnel to man TV stations. Each major station would require at least 90 programme and engineering personnel of various categories. Keeping in view the profound social significance of television as a means of instruction, information and entertainment which demand that the service be manned by a highly trained programme and engineering staff, it was decided to provide maximum 'on-the-spot' training to its staff in Pakistan so that the trainees would have the advantage of working and learning under realistic conditions.

With the assistance of the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany, Pakistan's Central TV Training Institute has now been set up at Rawalpindi which can impart training to 40 programme and 40 engineering personnel per year. Facilities will also be provided here for specialised courses of shorter duration for such category of staff as is required for floor management, stage supervision, film editing and routine operation of technical facilities. The Institute will be located permanently at Islamabad.

Besides supplying the equipment, the West German Government has also provided television experts who will train Pakistani staff to take over as instructors.

24. FILMS

In 1947, when Pakistan came into existence, the film industry had no indigenous production potential either for entertainment or news communication. The development of the industry in general was therefore left to private enterprise, but utilisation of the medium for national publicity was taken up in 1948 by the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting through the Department of Films and Publications(DFP). Beginning with just two films in the first year, this Department has by now produced nearly 200 documentary films on different aspects of national life. Besides the documentaries, it has also, since 1958-59, been producing news-reels for national, and also international consumption, beginning with 12 in the first year and reaching 50 in 1964-65 and 45 in 1965-66. Seventeen of these films have obtained twenty-three awards in international film festivals. In commercial film-making also, there has been considerable progress. Some 60 films are now made every year at nine film studios in Lahore, Karachi and Dacca.

DOCUMENTARY FILMS

Due to lack of personnel, equipment and technical experience, progress in the making of documentary films in early years was slow. For a number of years, the DFP maintained only a skeleton film unit with one or two officers and technicians. Additions were made from time to time, but there was no organised or planned production of documentary films or news-reels. Production facilities within the country were limited and there were heavy calls by commercial

film producers on the equipment available with private film studios. Most of the Department's work of processing and recording had, therefore, to be done abroad.

In 1952, the services of a film adviser were obtained from the United Kingdom under the Colombo Plan. This was followed by some editing equipment from the same country in 1955. Arrangements were then made under a project agreement with the Government of the U.S.A. to procure film equipment and establish a compact production unit capable of producing 20 to 25 informative and instructive films annually.

The laboratory building was completed and the equipment installed by American film technicians, but the actual working of the project and all artistic and technical operation connected with film-making were from the beginning handled by Pakistani personnel.

The first film to be processed, recorded and produced at the film laboratory of the Department was a news-reel about the swearing-in ceremony of General (as he then was) Mohammad Ayub Khan as President of Pakistan and the installation of the first Revolutionary Cabinet on 27th October, 1958. The film was released in English, Urdu and Bengali versions within 24 hours throughout the country and rushed overseas for news-reels and television coverage. It marked a new stage in the development of film publicity in Pakistan. The formal inauguration of the film processing laboratory, and sound recording and editing studios was done much later, in May 1959.

The Department is acquiring a suitable site at Islamabad, the country's capital, for construction of an up-to-date film studio and laboratory. These will in time be equipped with all advanced devices, such as sound stages, special effects, animation equipment, and colour processing plant.

Film Production

At present the Department produces a weekly news-reel in addition to documentary films on important nation-building activities and outstanding cultural themes.

TABLE 70
PRODUCTION OF DOCUMENTARY FILMS AND NEWS-REELS

Year	News-reels	Documentary Films
1947-57	Nil	62
1957-58	Nil	6
1958-59	12	1
1959-60	20	18
1960-61	24	16
1961-62	25	17
1962-63	26	10
1963-64	28	22
1964-65	50	16
1965-66	45	26
TOTAL	230	194

As the demand for films is constantly increasing and all assignments cannot be accommodated, independent film producers are also commissioned to make films for ministries and departments of both the central and provincial governments. They receive advice and, at times, supervision in production from the DFP. The processing of final prints is done at the Department's laboratory, particularly in 16 mm, as processing facilities for this sub-standard size are scarce in the country. Editing, recording and other facilities are also sometimes made available to ensure that the quality and treatment of government films made by independent film producers are of acceptable standard.

Pakistan Story

In 1966, the Department produced its most ambitious film. It is a full length documentary, *Pakistan Story*, which depicts the history of this nation. Supported by authentic visuals of historical events, the film portrays the rise, decline and renaissance of the Pakistani nation in full perspective. The leadership of Quaid-i-Azam and the struggle for the achievement of Pakistan provides the film with some of its most historic sequences. The film ends on the note of present-day development under the leadership of President Ayub. Great care had been taken to ensure the documentary value of the film. Most of the visual material, some of it very rare and historically valuable, was procured from museums, archives and film libraries within the country and abroad. The film runs into ten reels of about ninety minute duration. For internal exhibition this film was made in 35 mm and 16 mm, in Urdu and Bengali versions. For screening abroad it is being dubbed in English, Arabic, Iranian and Turkish languages. The length of these foreign language versions will be six reels of about an hour's duration.

Assistance to Foreign Producers

Agencies such as the United Nations, UNESCO, USIS and ICA also call regularly on the co-operation of the Department when films have to be dubbed into Pakistan's regional languages and prints made for circulation within the country. The Department advises and provides guidance and assistance to foreign television, documentary, news-reel, and feature film producers, particularly from Europe and America, who visit this country to make films.

Distribution

All news-reels and documentary films produced by the Department are released under a scheme of compulsory screening for which a nominal rental is charged to the cinema owners. All cinemas in Pakistan screen each film for a period of one week. For non-commercial screening, particularly in rural areas, prints are supplied to provincial Public Relations Department for use on their mobile vans.

Abroad, material from the weekly news-reel is supplied to about 18 countries in different parts of the world. The material is generally supplied either on request, or when any news item is of

interest to a particular country, or when events of international importance occur in this country.

More than 20 TV agencies in about 18 different countries are on the regular mailing list for news items from Pakistan. News stories are also supplied to international TV agencies (like Visnews Ltd., London, and United Press International, London) who process this material at their own offices in London, Tokyo and Singapore and circulate it to their subscribers in different countries. Visnews, which count 78 countries among their subscribers, are regularly fed with eight to ten stories every month.

RCD partners (*i.e.* Iran and Turkey) are supplied two to four stories every month. Important proceedings of RCD meetings in various fields of co-operation are covered and copies of film coverage in 35 mm are supplied to Iran and Turkey for use in their news-reels. In addition, stories of international and mutual interest are also sent to both these countries.

Prints of 16 mm film on nation-building and cultural subjects are sent to Pakistan's missions abroad for screening in approximately 45 countries of the world. Material from Pakistan's news-reels is used by news-reel and television systems in USA, UK, Europe, the Far East and the Middle East. Similarly, prints of documentary films are supplied to government film distribution agencies abroad, such as the Central Office of Information, London. The National Film Board of Television System in the USA, Japan, Britain, France, the UAR, Lebanon, Iran, and some other countries have given wide coverage to the cultural and instructional films from Pakistan.

Pakistan also maintains liaison with important international organisations concerned with the promotion of film as a mass communication media. Bilateral arrangements ensure that Pakistan's participation in the United Nations and its agencies are projected both within the country and abroad.

International Awards

Pakistani documentaries have been much commended by general audiences and film critics abroad. As noted, 17 of them have received 23 international awards.

TABLE 71
FILMS WHICH RECEIVED INTERNATIONAL AWARDS

Film	Award	Festival
River Indus	(a) Certificate of Merit	(a) International Film Festival, Cleveland, 1955.
	(b) Diploma of Honour	(b) Premier Festival Du Film Touristique, Marseilles, 1959.

Film	Award	Festival
Hill Tracts of Chittagong	Diploma of Honour	III International Review of Specialised Cinematography, sponsored by the Institute of Education, Cinematography and General Physiology of the University of Rome, 1957.
One Acre of Land	Special Award	International Film Festival, Venice, 1958.
Road to Prosperity	First Prize	Agricultural Films Festival, Berlin, 1960.
Focus on Sports	Silver Plaque and Diploma of Honour	XVII International Competition for Sports Motion Picture, Rome, 1961.
Wealth in Pond	Winning Diploma	Vancouver International Film Festival, 1961.
The Friendly Atoms	Diploma of Honour	IXth International Review of Specialised Cinematography, Rome, 1961.
Pakistan News Pictorial No. 20 Vol. III.	Certificate of Merit	International Film Festival, San Franscisco, 1962.
Pakistan News Pictorial No. 10 Vol. IV.	Award of Meritorious Participation	Seventh Annual San Francisco Film Festival, 1963.
River Idyll	Diploma of Honour	XVI International Film Festival, Locarno, 1963.
Handicrafts	(a) Certificate of Entry (b) Silver Plaque (c) Award of Meritorious Participation	(a) XII Cork Film Festival, 1963. (b) Swift Current International Jubilee Film Festival, 1964. (c) XIII Annual San Francisco Film Festival, 1964.

Film	Award	Festival
City of Lahore	(a) Diploma of Honour (b) Certificate of Entry (c) Iranian Flag	(a) Festival du Film Touristique, Marseilles. (b) XIV International Film Festival, Berlin, 1964. (c) III International Film Festival, Tehran, 1965.
Space Horizon	Iranian Flag	III International Film Festival, Tehran, 1965.
Agricultural Development Corporation in the Field	Special Certificate	III International Agricultural Film Festival Berlin, 1964.
Ghazala	(a) Diploma of Honour (b) Certificate of Entry	(a) XVII International Film Festival, Locarno, 1964. (b) Children's Film Festival, Spain, 1965.
Operation Snow Crop	Diploma of Honour	XVIII International Film Festival, Locarno, 1965.
Cotton Wealth	Diploma D'Participation	"Gold Mercury" Film Prize, Venice, 1966.

Film Archives

An archives unit has been set up under the Film Wing of the Department of Films and Publications to preserve valuable shots and subjects of general interest in social, economic and political life. The Archives Unit is also meant to cater to the requirements of other film production organisations within the country and abroad.

Film Library

The Department maintains at Karachi a National Film Lending Library with branches at Rawalpindi and Dacca. Films are loaned to educational institutions, and to social welfare and cultural establishments.

COMMERCIAL FILMS

Almost all 'feature' films, as against documentaries, are made by private enterprise on a commercial basis. Apart from the Film Development Corporation of East Pakistan, which is also an autonomous organisation, production, import, distribution and exhibition of all such films are in private hands, only regulated by Government by legislation, licensing, taxation policies and censorship.

Background

Cinemas were built in the former provinces of Sind, the Punjab and Bengal, as in the rest of the sub-continent, in the early decades of this century. By the thirties, studios had been established in Lahore for the production of silent pictures. These studios were later converted into sound studios and a thriving feature film industry grew up in that city producing films in Urdu and Punjabi. The cinema habit spread fast during World War II, and the number of cinemas increased. But film production had to be limited by licensing to about 100 films a year. This curtailment of output and simultaneous expansion of screening facilities brought about an artificial prosperity. When control was lifted after the War, there was an immediate spurt on film production activities, which was as much in evidence at Lahore as elsewhere. Four studios were then operating in that city and a fifth was under construction. Distribution of films in Sind and Baluchistan regions was controlled from Lahore and a number of distribution offices sprung up to meet the demand. In East Pakistan cinemas were fed from Calcutta. There was no indigenous film production or distribution.

With independence came a big change. Of the important film-making centres, Calcutta, Poona, Bombay and Madras went to India. Pakistan received only Lahore. Even there the position was that all the branches of the industry, of production, distribution and exhibition, had been in the hands of the Hindu community. Producers, directors, technicians and artists migrated in large numbers to India. In addition to this, much of the equipment was damaged during the disturbances. There was almost nothing left for day to day requirements of production, exhibition and distribution, and the trade was all but paralysed. Only one studio was left in some shape; and of the cinemas only about one-eighth of the total number in the sub-continent came to Pakistan. The reorganisation meant starting again and rebuilding every aspect anew.

The rebuilding process was set in motion. Cinemas and distribution concerns left behind by Hindu migrants were allotted to persons who had had any experience in the industry, and equipment began to be collected. It was not until September 1948 that the first Pakistani film went to the censors.

FILM INDUSTRY TODAY

The film industry is divided into three main sectors: production, distribution and exhibition. There are some ancillary enterprises such as import and manufacture of film equipment, import and sale of raw material, film censorship and film journalism.

Production

Beginning with one film in 1948, and seven in 1949, the number of films produced in all languages in the first eight months of 1966

was 60. The breakdown was as follows: Urdu 37, Bengali 11 and Punjabi 12.

The average Pakistani film is about 12,000 feet in length and takes 12 to 18 months to produce. The average cost of a film is estimated at Rs 350,000. Most films produced in East Pakistan cost a hundred thousand rupees less than that figure, and many Urdu films made in West Pakistan may cost that much more. The returns are uncertain, but generally the margin of profit is low because of high, and, according to one investigation, wasteful, cost of production.

Studios

The centres of film production are Lahore, Karachi and Dacca. There are five studios in Lahore, three in Karachi and one in Dacca, with equipment and other assets ranging in value between Rs 150,000 to Rs 3 million. In these nine studios, about 100 films are under production at any one time, the biggest of them handling 40 to 50 concurrently, running four shifts per day. Some 80 per cent of the total output comes from Lahore.

The East Pakistan studio is different from others in that it is not a purely private concern. In view of the lack of facilities in that province, the Film Development Corporation was sponsored by the government in 1957 as an autonomous body with an authorised capital of Rs 10 million, 51 per cent of it invested by the provincial government.

Laboratories

There are six film laboratories attached to six studios, three in Lahore, two in Karachi and one in East Pakistan. They employ about 100 technicians each. Their output amounts to an average of 50,000 feet per day. A good part of the laboratory equipment is now manufactured in Pakistan.

Distribution

There are about 140 distributing companies in the country which acquire films from producers and rent them to cinemas on a fixed percentage (usually 55) of the total receipts of each show, or a fixed rental (such as Rs 200 per show). These companies control the exploitation rights of all pictures produced in Pakistan or imported from abroad for commercial screening. There are about 500 to 700 films in distribution at any time. About 300 are Pakistani films; 250 are those imported every year. There is a ban on the import of Indian films to provide stimulus to the developing home industry.

Of the 140 distributing companies, 15 are agents or branch offices of foreign film distributors; the others deal with indigenous films.

The film distributor in Pakistan is more than a middle man. He is generally responsible for a good part of the production itself. After starting a film, the producer depends on the distributor for an advance of anything upto 50 per cent of the finance required for the production.

Exhibition

There are about 515 permanent cinemas and over 30 touring talkies in the country, with a total seating capacity of about 350,000. All the touring talkies and over 385 of the permanent houses are in West Pakistan. The total playing time comes to over 30,000 weeks. About 15 per cent of this is taken up by imported films. An average Pakistani film runs for an approximate period of 150 weeks.

Export

Special efforts have recently been made for finding foreign markets for Pakistani films. A Film Export Corporation has been established to organise the effort and it has an office in London for the European market. An agreement was recently reached between the film makers of Pakistan and their counterparts in Indonesia for the export of 72 Pakistani films during 1966. Another delegation to Afghanistan concluded release of several films, one of which fetched returns of 80,000 Afghan rupees. A delegation of distributors and artists recently visited South East Asia, East Africa, the Middle East and held talks with the importers of these regions for similar bilateral agreements.

Festivals and Awards

Pakistani films have participated in international film festivals held in Germany, Cannes, Venice, Colombo, Edinburgh and elsewhere. Some of them have won prizes and citations. A list of the documentaries that have received international awards is given on pages 570-72. Among feature films one in Bengali (*Shutorang* — If So) was awarded the Golden Plaque of Germany, and another, also from East Pakistan (*Jago Hua Savera* — The Day Shall Dawn), obtained two citations at the Cannes festival.

Within Pakistan, the first exhibition of modern world classics was held in 1965 at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore. Films were received for this from Ceylon, China, France, India, Iran, Japan, Poland, Turkey and the USSR.

An all-Pakistan film festival was organised in Dacca in which selected Pakistani films were judged and awarded prizes for best filming, direction, acting (male and female separately), story, dialogue, music, photography, and other aspects. A lively seminar on various aspects of the film industry was another feature of the festival.

Some other institutions have also constituted annual awards for the 'bests' of every year, and their jury decisions usually reflect popular verdicts.

Government and the Industry

As noted 'feature' film-making is almost entirely in private hands. Government remains concerned about its overall development, and about regulating its working through various legislative and administrative measures.

The control of the film industry is vested in different ministries of the central and departments of the provincial governments. Some aspects also fall under the control of local and municipal authorities.

The Ministry of Industries, which looks after the general industrial development of the country, has been taking measures to co-ordinate the development of the film industry. The main burden of the administration of the industry has rested with this ministry. The export and import of films is looked after by the Ministry of Commerce. It negotiates terms of trade agreements and is also the final authority for allocating foreign exchange to meet the industry's requirements. The administration of the Cinematograph Act and its legislative control is a function of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. The industry also comes under the purview of the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Defence when security, breach of the peace or other matters affecting the welfare and safety of the people are involved. The taxation of the industry is dealt with by the Ministry of Finance which makes budgetary provision for taxes to be realised and also scrutinises its special requirements in the assessment of income tax, super tax, sales tax, and other taxes. The Ministry of Health, Social Welfare and Labour looks to the interests of labour. The Factory Act, which applies to the film studios, is administered by the provincial governments.

Cinematograph Act

Under the Cinematograph Act, provincial governments have powers to grant licences for cinemas. Their powers can be delegated to district magistrates or to such other persons as the provincial government may decide to appoint as licensing authorities for the whole or part of the province. The Act is an adaptation of the *Indian* Cinematograph Act of 1918, and modifications suited to the needs of the country have from time to time been made to it. Its main function is to license cinemas in the country and to ensure the certification of films to be shown to the public.

Amendments have been made to the Act to provide for the compulsory screening of educational, documentary or other approved films.

Central Advisory Council

In March 1967, the Government set up a Central Advisory Council to co-ordinate all matters relating to the film industry, and to promote production of better films, in line with national traditions and ideology.

The Council has been given complete powers to deal with the problems of the film industry, particularly on the following issues: provisions of raw material, technical equipment and machinery; fixation of tariff rates on raw material and different kinds of equipment; provision of incentives, such as awards or exemption from entertainment tax for approved films on national themes; pre-censorship guidance in respect of subjects and themes; policy-

making relating to export, import and exhibition of foreign films; film exchange; promotion of film clubs and film festivals, and joint production of films.

The Minister and Secretary of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting are the chairman and vice-chairman of the body. The other members include representatives of the Ministries of Commerce, Industry and Finance and representatives of the provincial governments and the Board of Revenue.

Censorship

All films meant for public exhibition are required to be passed through censorship first. Censorship is governed by an Act of August 1963, and the censorship rules made under it in November of that year. A code of censorship was drawn up earlier, in 1961.

The Central Board of Film Censor functions under the auspices of the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting. It has its headquarters in Rawalpindi, and branch offices in Lahore and Dacca. Headed by a chairman it comprises official and non-official members, the former not exceeding the latter.

A film may be passed as it is for universal exhibition, it may be passed for adults only, or it may be considered suitable (universally or for adults only) after certain specified portions are deleted. It may also be adjudged by the Censor Board as altogether unsuitable, in which case the exhibitor has the option to appeal to the government, when a special committee of three is appointed whose decision becomes binding.

The censorship code specifies the grounds on which a film can be considered unsuitable. These include infringement of national security or law and order; encroaching upon international relations or religious susceptibilities; promoting immorality, obscenity, bestiality or crime; upholding traffic in liquor; defaming individuals; exploiting war incidents; blackmail.

On the whole, the Censor is in practice liberal and allows full margin for creative ideas and artistic expression.

Inspection of Cinemas

The inspection of cinemas with regard to measures of health and safety of the public is the responsibility of the provincial governments who have framed laws for the inspection of cinemas and attached conditions to the licences issued to the proprietors under the provision of the Cinematograph Act.

The schedule issued for this purpose prescribes conditions regarding suitability of buildings for exhibiting cinematograph and observance of municipal bye-laws and other relevant regulations; relative position of the picture screen and the seats; overcrowding; fire-precautions; enclosure for the cinematograph apparatus, its ventilations, etc.; storage of combustible material, including films and other precautions; fixture of the cinematograph equipment and spools; lighting; operators.

Provincial governments are also the regulating authorities regarding the construction of new cinemas buildings.

Taxation

The industry pays Government taxes to the extent of Rs 25 million every year. Four-fifths of this amount accrue from the box office and the balance is made up by import duties, sales tax, income tax, super tax, property tax, municipal taxes, octroi taxes, licensing and inspection fees.

There are over 515 cinemas in the country and on the whole approximately two-thirds of the gross earnings from the sale of tickets are paid to provincial governments as entertainment tax. The average entertainment tax paid by audiences all over Pakistan, including the surcharge levied in Karachi and East Pakistan, comes to about 66 per cent of the total price of a ticket.

A sales tax is charged on the sale of films. It is levied on all sales throughout the country. It has to be paid on raw stock, *viz.*, negative film, positive film, sound film and duplicating films when they are purchased in an unprocessed state. It is also charged on every print that a producer sells to a distributor.

Customs duty is also levied on raw stock.

The import duty on exposed cinematographic film is divided into two categories:

(*a*) cinematographic films exposed and developed, whether or not incorporating sound track, negative or positive;

(*b*) other cinematographic films, exposed and developed, consisting only of sound track, negative or positive.

In the matter of equipment imported from abroad the industrial rate of customs duty is charged for the main items, whereas some items interpreted as photographic material are charged at higher rates.

While calculating the income tax of film producers, originally 75 per cent depreciation was allowed on the value of the film in the first year, and 25 per cent in the second year. In 1960-61 income tax relief was given to producers by allowing 100 per cent depreciation in the first year.

All cinemas in Pakistan and film studios pay the normal property tax levied in the areas and localities in which they are situated. In addition to this, cinemas have to pay certain specified municipal taxes. One of the most important of these is the show tax. Municipalities also charge board taxes.

A licensing fee is charged from cinemas which ranges from Rs 250 to Rs 500.

Although in private hands, the industry is too important to be allowed to regulate its own affairs. Government has, therefore, kept close watch and has made especial efforts to regulate and speed its development on desirable lines.

Development of the Industry

At various times since independence the affairs of the film industry came under close scrutiny. In 1948, UNESCO sent an expert who examined the conditions then prevailing. Then, in July 1950, a Film Advisory Committee was set up with the following terms of reference:

(*a*) to review the working of the industry;

(*b*) to discuss the difficulties in the way of progress of the industry;

(*c*) to make suitable recommendations to the Government for improvement and expansion of the industry; and

(*d*) to review the co-ordinating activities of different ministries and government departments.

The Committee included representatives of the ministries and departments of Industries, Commerce, Information and Broadcasting, and Education of the central and provincial governments. The film trade was represented by prominent producers and exhibitors. A sub-committee went into the questions of Pakistan's film requirements, the country's production capacity, location of studios, and types of film production. The Advisory Committee recommended among other things restriction on the free flow of Indian films, and protection to the local film industry. The recommendations were accepted by the Government.

Later, to accelerate the production of films, a Film Development Directorate was set up in the Ministry of Industries in October 1953. New licences for the import of film equipment, spare parts, cameras, recording units, printers and accessories were issued to meet the lack of equipment. As a result, there was an increase in production.

Later, some Italian experts were invited to study and report on the general situation of the film industry. Trade agreements were also negotiated with the Government of Italy for technical assistance.

In 1960, the Revolutionary Government set up a Film Fact Finding Committee with the following terms of reference:

(*a*) to go into the working of the film industry and identify the problems facing it;

(*b*) to make suggestions to solve these problems;

(*c*) to suggest ways and means of improving the industry and, in this connection, deal with proposals for production of films in collaboration with producers of other countries; and

(*d*) to examine measures which would enable the film industry to develop into a medium for promotion of national culture and education, and for providing healthy entertainment at the same time.

Through extensive interviews and questionnaires issued to different sections of people concerned with film industry the committee collected a vast body of information in respect of every aspect

of the industry and made its detailed recommendations. These included the following:

(*a*) The industry could remain in the hands of free enterprise.

(*b*) Some legislation seemed necessary to suppress the growth of abuses and malpractices.

(*c*) Art and experiment might be given free scope for development.

(*d*) Provision of training facilities and proper organisation to facilitate the running of the industry was needed.

(*e*) Restriction on the import of foreign films had to continue.

(*f*) More cinemas were needed; where private capital was not forthcoming the Film Development Corporation might finance them.

(*g*) Fixation of shares of producers, distributors and exhibitors was necessary to ensure that none was exploited by the other.

(*h*) More playing time might be given to Pakistani films.

(*i*) Foreign markets for Pakistani films needed to be explored.

(*j*) Entertainment tax might be reduced.

Five-Year Plans

The Second and Third Five-Year Plans have given suitable attention to the requirements of the industry. The former emphasised expansion and modernisation of existing studios so that they could more nearly meet the demand. The latter has envisaged setting up of a film institute for training film technicians, artists, musicians, *etc.*, and has provided for further expansion of facilities.

The First Plan's provision to the industry was Rs 7.6 million, the Second raised it to Rs 10 million, and the Third has now pegged it at Rs 94 million.

25. LITERATURE

At the time of independence Pakistan inherited a rich and highly cultivated literary tradition, which had evolved and enriched itself through various linguistic and cultural influences, including Persian, Arabic, Sanskrit, and latterly English and other European sources. The literatures of Pakistan are now fairly well acquainted with the literary culture of the rest of the modern world, and are responsive to major literary trends.

The languages spoken in Pakistan are all closely related to each other being mostly descendants of the old *Prakrits* which together formed the Indo-Pakistani branch of the ancient Indo-Aryan family of languages. Thus, Bengali in East Pakistan has sprung from the same original roots as Sindhi in the West: while Urdu, which is a very mixed language, is by and large based on one of the North-Indian dialects of the same group.

Promotion of Literature

For the promotion of literature Government, conscious of the role of intellectual activities in the advancement of the nation, gives incentives for organised work in this field through learned bodies. These bodies are either privately organised but receiving substantial grants-in-aid from the Government, or they are government sponsored.

Literary organisations

There are about twenty literary organisations of particular importance. The more prominent of them are: the Pakistan Writers' Guild; the two Central Boards for the Development of Bengali and Urdu; Anjuman-e-Taraqqui-e-Urdu; Bengali Academy, Dacca; Urdu Academy, Bahawalpur; Pashto Academy, Peshawar; The West Pakistan Board for Advancement of Literature; Anjuman Saqafat-e-Islamia;

Nazrul Academy, Karachi; Iqbal Academy, Karachi; Sindhi Adabi Board, Hyderabad; Urdu Development Board, Karachi; and the Pakistan Council of National Integration set up in the important cities.

The Pakistan Writers' Guild was established in January 1959, by a convention of writers from all over Pakistan. It is a representative organisation of Pakistani writers of all languages and its principal objectives are to create a proper atmosphere for the production of literature in the country and to protect the legitimate rights and privileges of writers in Pakistan. The Guild has branches all over the country; there are three regional centres at Dacca, Karachi and Lahore and about 20 sub-regional centres in both East and West Pakistan.

Awards

Several of the learned bodies give awards for outstanding literary production. The Guild spends Rs 4,000 annually. Adamjee Industries founded an annual literary award of Rs 20,000 for books of creative literature in Bengali and in Urdu and the Dawood Foundation instituted prizes amounting to Rs 25,000 per year for the best research books in Urdu and Bengali. The National Bank of Pakistan has also instituted annual prizes amounting to Rs 25,000 for best books of the year in Bengali and Urdu on the economic development of Pakistan. It sponsors delegations of writers between East and West Pakistan as well as to foreign countries.

Other bodies giving literary awards are: The Bangla Academy (Rs 12,000 annually), the Bureau of National Reconstruction (East Pakistan—Rs 6,500), the Majlis-e-Taraqqe-e-Adab (Rs 2,500 to 4,000), and the Punjab Advisory Board (Rs 2,000). Awards for children's books are jointly sponsored by the Pakistan Writers' Guild and Urdu Development Board, Karachi.

The state recognises outstanding creative effort through the Pride of Performance award, which also carries a monetary prize of Rs 5,000.

URDU

The Language

There are conflicting claims about the original home of the Urdu language; scholars have been disputing the matter among themselves for a long time. Urdu is essentially a product of the grafting of Persian and Arabic on local Indian dialects, through Muslim contact with this sub-continent. As such it could have its origin in Gujerat, Sind, the Punjab, Delhi or the Deccan, where it flowered as a literary language for the first time. Barring some fragmentary pieces of literary writing which had their origin in the north, the history of Urdu literature had regular beginnings in the 15th century in the Deccan. The patronage of the Muslim dynasties ruling the Deccan peninsula had a great deal to do with this. The centre of activity shifted to the north about the end of the 17th century, though the stream never dried up in the Deccan, enjoying fresh encouragement under the Asafjahi rule, which ended in 1948, with the occupa-

tion and absorption of Hyderabad by the new Indian Union. Meanwhile, however the language was spoken and cultivated in almost all parts of the sub-continent and served as the virtual *lingua franca* of the lands south of the Himalayas. Poets and writers from almost all provinces of both the countries, India and Pakistan, have contributed to its growth.

In the north, the two great centres of Urdu were first Delhi, and then Lucknow. After the establishment of British rule in the sub-continent by 1857, the principal centres of the development of Urdu became Hyderabad in the Deccan and Lahore in the present day West Pakistan. By the end of the 18th century it had superseded Persian as the vehicle of Muslim culture in the sub-continent; in 1837 it was recognised as the language of the civil courts under British jurisdiction, and was adopted as a state language by several Indian states, notably Hyderabad where in 1920, the first modern university, with Urdu as medium of instruction was established. The earliest efforts to produce modern scientific literature in Urdu began in 1838 under the auspices of the Translation Bureau founded by a nobleman of Hyderabad, Nawab Shamsul-Umara. The task was carried further by the Scientific Society founded at Aligarh by Sir Syed Ahmad Khan, even before the famous M.A.O. College, forerunner of the Aligarh Muslim University of today came into being. About the same time, a new literary movement was started in Lahore, the notable figures participating in it being Maulana Mohammad Husain Azad and Maulana Hali. Urdu has since been the medium of instruction at the primary and secondary stages of education and was a popular language among all communities, Muslim and non-Muslim, inhabiting the former undivided Punjab. Some of the finest literary works of Urdu in modern times have come from the Punjab, including those of Iqbal, the greatest name in modern Pakistani literature. It was adopted as one of the two national languages of Pakistan in 1956, the other being Bengali.

Development

A number of literary and academic institutions are at work to develop and equip Urdu to take the place of English as a state language and as the language of education and government in West Pakistan. The Universities of Karachi and Punjab have already introduced Urdu as the medium of instruction at the degree levels. The Agricultural University of Lyallpur carries out much of its work in this language. The Urdu Development Board at Karachi is engaged on the compilation of a grand lexicon of Urdu, on historical principle, after the pattern of the Oxford English Dictionary. The Central Board for Urdu at Lahore has *interalia* sponsored a programme for making text books of modern science available in Urdu for the benefit of the pupils at schools and colleges. The Anjuman-e-Taraqqui-e-Urdu, which has various branches in both wings of Pakistan, is compiling an exhaustive bibliography of Urdu, the first two volumes of which — dealing respectively with religion and history and

comprising about 10,000 titles each — have already been completed. The Anjuman started an Urdu College in 1950, where teaching in all subjects is imparted in Urdu. It is a flourishing institution with a high reputation for its standard of teaching and examination results.

Urdu has enriched itself considerably by assimilating regional elements, thereby acquiring a new vitality and closeness to life. This promises to be a great enlivening force, giving a new character to Urdu and marking yet another phase in its development. Like the Dakkani and the languages of Delhi and Lucknow before it, it will find roots in the soil here.

Literature

National Strains

As in language so in literature, a process of amalgamation has been in evidence. Local influences have been subtly at work, introducing into Urdu literature new literary peculiarities, conceits, forms of expression, styles, and even angles of critical appreciation. Classical writers of the regional languages as well as Bengali, like Khushal Khan Khattak, Rahman Baba, Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai, Sachal Sarmast, Khwaja Fareed, Nazrul Islam and others have become common property adding new breadth to the literary horizon. Regional treasures are being imbibed into a common literary consciousness. There has also been conscious effort to amalgamate the regional elements into some harmony. The work has been done with informed inspiration and is in some cases as good as original creative work. Thus there is a gradual movement towards the development of a national literature. Further stimulus is provided by the extra-literary needs of promoting national integration.

The mostly unbidden inter-regional and cross-country linguistic fusion, matched equally by the literary and cultural one, is evidenced by the large number of Bengali, Punjabi and Sindhi words, allusions and even lines and songs introduced into Urdu prose and poetry. A number of regional words and verse-forms, such as *mahiya*, *tappa*, *si-harfi*, *jugni*, *kafi*, *wai*, etc., are now part of the vocabulary of Urdu literature. During the Indo-Pakistan war of September 1965, when there was an uncommon unity of thought and opinion among the 100 million people of this country, musical tunes from Sindhi, Punjabi and Bengali swept over the whole country and struck identical chords among the people of all regions.

The unity of purpose and outlook, otherwise usually a conscious objective, came spontaneously on two critical occasions in the nation's history: first at independence, especially due to disturbances of the period; and second, inspired by the valiant defence against Indian attack in September, 1965. A great body of patriotic poetry was written on these occasions which can match the poetry of any other national struggle in its sterling sincerity and exhortative power. The prose writings of that period too, both serious and witty, marked a climax of effective writing.

The Kashmiri people's struggle for self-determination has also called forth a continuous flow of writings, presenting as wide a

spectrum as the long-drawn-out popular movement itself. Though on a topical issue, the literature on the theme is not without pieces of abiding value, dealing as they do with the perennial human dilemma and impulses involved. Other liberal causes of the world have also similarly inspired the writers of Pakistan.

Poetry

Poetry remains the most popular form of literature throughout Pakistan. The *mushairas* or poetic symposia retain as much of their fascination as ever. It is, therefore, not strange that the most forceful writing should be in poetry. Poems in the form of *rubais*, *qatas*, *ghazals*, etc., regularly appear in newspapers, magazines and journals and present a great problem of selection and omission for the anthologists at the end of each year.

Iqbal remains the most cherished name in present day Urdu literature. He was the fountain-head of the Muslim renaissance, and fathered the idea of Pakistan. His intellectual vigour, which has been acclaimed even outside Pakistan, still fascinates the poets and writers of Pakistan, most of them having been bred under his influence. His poetry has influenced different poets in different ways—revolutionary poets in their zeal (Josh Malihabadi), progressive poets in their liberal outlook (Faiz Ahmad Faiz), the lyrical in their metric patterns (Hafeez Jullundhri), and the romantic (Akhtar Shirani) poets, and the modernists in the enlargement of expression and introduction of new vocabulary.

One important trend in Urdu poetry has been to enliven old forms with new spirit and approach. Old themes are informed with new idea and new idioms and new social strains. Old values and traditions are given new relevance. Some outstanding poets of this group are Faiz (winner of the Lenin Award), Ihsan Danish, Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi. A second trend has been that of depth poetry with psychological import. The old dilemmas and doubts are dwelt on, showing new insight into them. This group is represented by such poets as N. M. Rashid, Qayyum Nazar, Yusuf Zafar, Majeed Amjad, Aziz Hamid Madani, Baqi, Siddiqui, Munir Niazi. There is, thirdly, a conscious effort by some poets of the younger generation such as Jamiluddin Aali, Ibn-i-Insha, Vazir Agha, Mukhtar Siddiqui, Zia Jullundhri, to recapture mythical romantic themes and their traditional diction in *ghazals* and songs. Seeing tradition as a part of the social *milieu*, these poets revert to the remote, archetypal memory of the social past, thereby becoming even more traditional. Going the other way round, some poets have copied the innovations of ultra-modern English poets. An abstract quality appears where poetry becomes purely symbolic and this provokes the usual charges of obscurity, remoteness and esotericism. Nevertheless, it is evidence, in Urdu poetry certainly, of discontent with dead convention and looking for fresh life and freer expression.

Recent years have been marked by some conscious experiments

in form and diction, noted examples of which are to be found in Zafar Tahir, Rafiq Khawar and the most prolific, Abdul Aziz Khalid.

The trend away from the traditional and towards experiments in new forms and diction have led to the introduction in Urdu poetry of such forms as *ghinaiya*, the ballad, *mahiya*, *jugni*, *kafi*, *wai*, *canto*, stanza, *tartil* and renovated *musallas*, *murabba* and *dohas*. One-act plays in verse, speaking verse and occasional sprung rhythm have also been adopted. These experiments have enriched Urdu poetry. No previous age presents such a wide-ranging array of verse-forms. The vogue for long poems of new type, the *ghinaiyas*, poetic plays and *cantos*, is particularly noteworthy. Renderings from world poetry, like Rilke's elegies and English masterpieces like "The last year" provided a fit addition to the daring ventures of war poetry. Free renderings of *Waste Land* and *Wreck of the Deutschland* are two other fine attempts along the line.

Amid all these innovations, the traditional *ghazal* continued to be the most favourite form of the elder as well as the younger generation of poets, gaining new lustre in the hands of Faiz, Qasimi, Hafeez Hoshiarpuri, Nasir Kazmi, Haqqee, Aali, Adam, Ahmad Faraz and several others.

The lighter side of poetry is represented by poets like Syed Zameer Jafari and Syed Mohammad Jafari, Rais Amrohavi and Mahmood Sarhadi. They have a rich and widely-ranging sense of humour.

Some of the recent poetical collections with their names of their authors are as follows:

Dast-e-Tah-e-Sang	..	Faiz Ahmad Faiz
Dagh-e-Firaq	..	Shad Amritsari
Dard ke phul	..	Mohammad Safdar
Farqaleet	..	Abdul Aziz Khalid
Sham aur Saye	..	Dr. Wazir Agha
Naqab-e-Dil	..	Abdul Hamid Adam
Chandni ke Phul	..	Nasir Shahzad
Jangal se Pare Sooraj	..	Maratib Ali Akhtar
Best poems of 1965	..	Maktaba-i-Jadeed
Razmia Geet	..	Pakistan Publications
Soore-e-Israfeel (Versified translations from Nazrul Islam)	..	Pakistan Publications
Neemroz	..	Tabish Dehlavi
Dasht-i-Imkan	..	Aziz Hamid Madani
Beyaz	..	Salim Ahmed
Pathar ki Lakeer	..	Sarshar Siddiqui
Na-rasa	..	Zia Jullundhri
Jag Raha Hai Pakistan	..	Urdu Academy Sindh
Fikro-Ilham	..	Josh Malihabadi
Nujum-o-Jawahir	..	Josh Malihabadi
Deedai-Bedar	..	Qabil Ajmeri

Safar	..	Justice S. A. Rehman
Manho-manna	..	Abdul Aziz Khalid
Shola	..	Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi
Saleeb-i-Gham	..	Auj Abdul Mateen
Haft-Iqleem	..	Zafar Tahir
Dard Ashob	..	Ahmad Faraz

Fiction As in poetry, pre-independence writers of fiction continued into the new period with a different outlook and newer approach. New figures also emerged. The former were mostly the outstanding short story-writers of the two decades before independence (Manto, Ahmad Nadeem Qasimi, Mumtaz Mufti, Ghulam Abdus, Q. U. Shahab, Khadija Mastoor, Hajira Masroor).

The critical state of affairs soon after independence overshadowed everything for some time. Writers produced numerous writings, some doubtless of enduring value, presenting a certain phase of national life. It had Pakistani atmosphere and locale. When things settled down to normal, noted writers began taking up the less transitory social themes.

Soon, two marked trends appeared. One was the romantic glorification of Islam, (Naseem Hejazi, Raees Ahmad Jafri) and second, a preoccupation with the new problems of the emerging society (Hasan Abdullah, *Udas Naslen*). Some excellent writings have been produced but worthy in the second group.

Writers outside these two groups make up a heterogenous class, but mostly concerned with objective and subjective studies of human life. This group kept itself less pervious to the pressure of events and hence acquired a broad and catholic attitude, dealing generally with things of general interest and applicability. Nevertheless, the writings of this class have a Pakistani cast and character, and the universally minded group is enlisting more and more recruits. Those essentially of this group include Syed Ghulam Saqlain, Qurratul Ain Haider in her Pakistani days (*Aag ka Darya*), Dr. Ahsan Farooqi (*Sangam*). Jamila Hashimi, Razia Fasih Ahmad, Altaf Fatima, Saeeda Sultana and a number of other female writers.

In fiction as in poetry, practitioners are not wanting who have made fresh departures in themes and presentation. Fazl Ahmad Karim Fazli, poet and novelist, though belonging to the old generation, shows this trend in his *Khoon-e-Jigar Hone Tak*, the first novel on East Pakistan which appeals by its intensive local colour and not by any romantic lure.

Recent Publications Some of the recent significant publications in Urdu fiction are as follows:

Alipur Ka Eli	..	Mumtaz Mufti
Viran Mahal	..	A. Hameed
Andhere ke Suraj	..	A. Hameed
Roshni ka Rag	..	A. Hameed

Jare Ki Chandni	..	Ghulam Abbas
Udas Naslen	..	Abdullah Husain
Talash-i-Baharan	..	Jameela Hashmi
Abla-pa	..	Razia Fasih Ahmad (Adamjee Award for 1964)
Seemin (Novel)	..	Naved Anjum
Kiran Kiran Andhre	..	Agha Ashraf
Ufuq se Ufuq Tak	..	Agha Ashraf
Sharare (Novel)	..	Saeeda Sultana
Chaurahe	..	Anwar Sajjad
Mohaddab Sheesha	..	Masood Mufti
Qasur Ki Mehndi	..	S. Qasim Mahmood
Angan	..	Khadeeja Mastoor
Tisri Manzil	..	Hajra Masroor
Deewaren	..	Hameed Kashmiri
Char Novelette	..	Abul Fazl Siddiqui

Drama

Drama as a form of literature has been comparatively far less cultivated, having rarely had a vogue outside films. The tradition of the old theatre companies has not been sustained and despite some brave and competent attempts (Manto, Mirza Adeeb, and, recently, Asghar Butt's), the form needs a strong impetus to make head-way.

Efforts have been continuously made to create a living theatre, sponsored by eager amateurs. Khawja Moinuddin has the largest number of stage plays to his credit — *Lal Qila Se Lalu Khet*, *Naya Nishan*, *Mirza Ghalib Bunder Road Par*. Another enthusiast is Ali Ahmed whose talents were called forth by the Indo-Pakistan War. Salim Ahmad, Syed Ahmad Rifat, and Riaz Farshori have written well and belong to the Radio group of artists which stages plays from time to time. Envar Enayatullah's interest in fiction extends to the stage also; his *Jab Tak Chamke Sona* is a recent play. Prof Ahmad Ali, whose English novel of the thirties, *Twilight in Delhi*, earned great appreciation abroad, recently wrote *Aadhi Roti*. Being topical, the subjects of all these spring from life and have a bearing upon it.

Radio plays are a class by themselves and depend mainly on adaptation.

Criticism

The emigration of Muslims from India brought two prominent literary figures of the generation to Pakistan — the late Dr. Abdul Haq and Niaz Fatehpuri. Both were first rank critics, belonging to the classical school and traditions. Another, rather orthodox, scholastic group is represented by such critics as Dr. Shadani, Dr. Sabzwari, Dr. Abul Lais Siddiqui, Dr. Ibadat Barelvi, Abid Ali Abid and Viqar Azeem. They try to maintain a balance between the old and the new approach. Viqar Azeem has written two volumes on fiction — *Dastan Se Afsene Tak*. Dr. Abul Lais Siddiqui has made an extensive study of the Lucknow school of Urdu poetry,

Syed Abid Ali Abid attempted a new manual of criticism in his *Usul-e-Intiqad*.

Dr. Ahsan Farooqi, himself an eminent novelist and short story writer, writes revelingly on fiction. Of the moderns, Hasan Askari and Mumtaz Shirin, both story tellers of long standing, are widely read in western literature and bring a keen eye of their own. Mumtaz Husain and Dr. Syed Abdullah are also scholarly critics. Dr. Wazir Agha's sociological approach makes a valuable addition to critical research and literary understanding. Muzaffar Ali Sayyid, Dr. Waheed Qureshi and Jameel Jalibi, are three other significant names in literary criticism.

Some of the noted critical books of the last few years are:

Shakhsiyat	..	Dr. S. Abdullah
Mir Amman se Abdul Haq tak	..	-do-
Fun aur Funkar	..	Viqar Azeem
Urdu Shairi ka Mizaj	..	Dr. Vazir Agha
Pakistani Saqafat	..	Jamil Jalibi
Mohammad Husain Azad	..	Aslam Farukhi
Tehqiq ki Roushni Men	..	Dr. A. Shadani
Momin	..	Faiz Rampuri
Classiki Adab ka Tehqeeqi Mutaila.	..	Dr. Vahid Qureshi
Urdu Lisaniyat	..	Dr. S. Sabzwari

Humour

There has been a lively strain of humorous writing in Urdu literature. In poetry the lighter side is now represented by poets like Syed Zamir Jafari, Syed Mohammad Jafri, Rais Amrohvi and Mahmood Sarhadi. The humour consists chiefly of parodying the mores and mannerisms of the time or depicting situations individuals often come face to face in the present unstable society.

In prose there has been considerable good work done recently. Among these are the presidential addresses of late Justice Kiyani (*Afkar-e-Parishan*), Mushtaq Yousufi (*Chiragh Taley*), Mrs. Akhter Riazuddin (*Saat Samandar Par*) and Col. Mohammad Khan (*Bajang Aamad*).

BENGALI

Bengali is one of the oldest of the modern languages of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent and is derived from the Eastern Prakrit group of the Indo-Aryan family of languages. The earliest available specimen of this literature dates from the 7th century. After the Muslim conquest, Bengali literature received the enthusiastic patronage of the Muslim rulers and it developed a prosperous and rich literature. Individually, Muslim writers also made definite contribution to its development during the Middle ages.

The Muslim writers struck a different note from the rest by introducing Muslim legends in place of myths and tales of Hindu origin. Inspired by Persian literature, the Mediaeval poets of Bengal started writing romantic verse tales. This change in themes brought

about a noticeable change in the linguistic pattern also. The most important aspect of the love tales written by Muslim poets is the humanistic approach hitherto unknown in this literature. One of the earliest known Muslim romances was perhaps Shah Muhammad Saghir in the 17th century, the writer of *Yusuf Zuleikha*. Another noted poet in the line was Daulat Uzir Bahram Khan in the 16th century who wrote *Laila Majnu*, another romantic legend. Another group of poets which needs special mention flourished in the Arakan Court in the 17th century. The most celebrated writer of this group was Alaol who translated *Padumabat* of Malik Muhammed Jaisi and *Haft Paikar* and *Sikandarnama* from the originals of the great Persian poet Nizami. This shows the new influence of Persian mystic poetry. The chapter of Mediaeval Bengali literature closes with the death of Bharat Chandra, the greatest poet of the 18th century.

The advent of the British rule brought in its wake unrest, confusion and frustration, all detrimental to any sort of creative activity. Accordingly in this period no great poet was born, but the stream of literary activity was kept going by a group of *Punthi* writers and *kavi-wallas*. Punthis are long narrative verse tales written in an artificial style on themes mostly taken from myths, legends and Islamic history. Several thousands of them were written in the 18th and 19th centuries in a mixed language. Because of the presence of a larger number of works adopted from the Persian and Arabic languages the diction of these *punthis* have come to be known as *Dobhashi* or bi-lingual. Presumably in the urban areas this language became the standard speech of the people, but this poetic form got stagnant and gradually became outmoded by the beginning of the 19th century. Two poets of the 18th century were outstanding, Garibullah and Syed Hamza.

With the establishment of the Hindu College in Calcutta and the rapid spread of English education a new horizon was discovered. New poetic forms emerged and new styles were introduced. Bengali prose originated under the patronage of the missionaries of Srirampur and the teachers of the Fort William College. As the Hindus, unlike the Muslims, quickly accepted the change they reaped the benefit too. Muslims gradually disappeared from this scene. Hindu writers soon started writing highly revivalistic epics recalling the past of the Hindus through their legends, myths and history. The period produced some outstanding poets of Bengali literature, including the great epic poet Michael Madhusudan Dutta. Muslims participation in literary activity was not evident until the sixties.

In the year 1863 a Muslim literary association was formed by the name 'Mohammedan Literary Society' under the presidentship of Nawab Abdul Latif. The interest spread and the exponents felt that Muslim values should be reassessed and rediscovered in the light of the rapid changes that were taking place as a result of the infiltration of western ideas. This urge for revivalism was in fact a reaction

to Hindu revivalism. These separate tendencies began to emerge and Muslim poets like Kaikobad, Ismail Hussain Shirazee and prose writers like Meer Musharraf Husain, Mozammel Huq and Manir-uzzaman Islamabadi kept this up.

Deveoplment of Language

During the past twenty years there has been great progress in all the sphere of literature and the development of the language. A Bengali Development Board was set up in 1962, which had until January 1966, received financial assistance from the central Government amounting to Rs. 2,025,000.

Till December 1966, the Central Board has published 19 books: eight on science, six on humanities, four reference books, and one on Islamic affairs. Another 24 books are in the press and 19 in manuscript form.

The Board has also made an attempt at meeting the demand for good dictionaries. It has already finalised a complete Persian -Arabic dictionary in Bengali and the first part of a Bengali-Urdu dictionary. Bengali - English and other sections of Bengali - Urdu dictionaries are in the press and a Bengali-Arabic dictionary is being prepared.

The Board not only publishes its own books, but extends financial assistance to others.

It invented the model for a Bengali type-writer which would be equally effective as an English type-writer. The model will shortly come into use in offices.

Poetry

By the time Pakistan had come into being, Tagore, the great Bengali poet was already dead, but his influences had penetrated into all spheres of Bengali literature.

Although Nazrul Islam stopped writing poetry before independence he is nevertheless an integral part of the Muslim tradition and in fact a pioneer of Muslim renaissance. Nazrul Islam created a significant world of his own. He was eloquently different from others, unmistakably unique in his attitude towards life, and that is why he could create a new tradition of forceful writings. He did not accept the pattern and rhythm of the *punthis*, but as in *punthis* he drew inspiration from Muslim myths and history. In his poems he used Arabic and Persian words extensively and effectively. This was also in keeping with the punthi traditions, but his language had a new vitality and force. He explored the vast possibility of the language and created a vocabulary of his own, drawing imagery from Muslim life and tradition to suit his profuse emotive exuberance.

Another powerful poet of this period who deserves special mention is Jasimuddin. Like Nazrul Islam, he also introduced a new trend in Bengali poetry. He derived his inspiration, style and diction from the innumerable folk ballads written in East Bengal. The life he depicts is essentially of rural Bengal, serene, simple, calm and free from modern complex sensibility. The absence of urban sophistication in his poems does not mean that he was unaware of the modern

trends. All he wanted was to revive the ballad form and modernise it. This is how he kept the folk traditions of East Bengal alive in poetry.

Yet another poet of the period was Gholam Mustafa. He had penetrating poetic sensibility, mature diction, accurate metre and rhyme and, above all, clear use of words. Two major trends are clearly visible in his poems. One is Muslim consciousness and a strong urge to revive the glorious past and rehabilitate Islamic values. The other is his consciousness of love and beauty.

Other notable poets of this period are Abdul Qadir, Begum Sufia Kamal, Shahadat Husain, Sufi Motahar Husain, Kader Nawaz, Mohiuddin, Mainuddin and Benazeer Ahmed. Of these Abdul Qadir is a powerful writer who has demonstrated considerable success in using adequate words in classical pattern. He is very conscious about the form of poetry and has an intellectual flair. He is romantic but his romanticism is not purely abstract. He mainly traverse in the domain of love. Shahadat Husain essentially belonged to the romantic school of Tagore. His poems are sweet, sonorous and melodious. He was less concerned with themes, more with vocabulary, metre, rythm and rhyme. Begum Sufia Kamal is a lyricist, always giving expression to her personal experience with utmost sincerity successfully transmitting it into universal artistic experience. Sufi Motahar Husain and Kader Nawaz again wrote in the pattern of Tagore, and Mohiuddin, Mainuddin and Benazeer Ahmed were largely influenced by Nazrul Islam. Sufi Motahar Husain deserves particular attention as a sonnet writer.

All these poets flourished in pre-independence Bengal and all of them except Nazrul Islam came to Dacca from Calcutta after independence. In East Pakistan they form the older group in poetry. Except Ghulam Mustafa and Shahadat Husain who are now dead the others still write but modern trends do not seem to have brought about much change in their style of approach.

Coming to the younger poets, in the early forties, the air was filled with political movements. They agitated the minds of the poets and litterateurs in Bengal, and often the acceptance of the Lahore Resolution, Muslim poets became enthusiastic about their traditions. A vigorous search went on for new vehicles of expression, for new imagery drawn from intimate Muslim sources. About this time, a few translations of Iqbal were published in Bengali and this gave new zeal and impetus to already stirred and agitated young minds. As a consequence, two literary societies were established: *Pakistan Renaissance Society* in Calcutta in 1941 with the monthly *Muhammadi* and the daily *Azad* as its chief organ; and *Purba Pakistan Sahitya Sangsad* (East Pakistan Literary Association) in Dacca in 1942 with the fortnightly *Pakistan* as its mouthpiece. These societies wanted to explore the possibilities of revitalising the new sources of inspiration. Farrukh Ahmad and Syed Ali Ahsan and Talim Husain were conspicuous in these new ventures. Syed Ali Ahsan's *Chahar*

Darvesh was an attempt to recreate the theme of a *punthi* with the awareness and sensibility of a modern poet, but the enthusiasm was more evident in Farrukh Ahmad. His first book of poems *Saat Shagarer Majhi* (published in 1944) is an example of his intense emotional exuberance. He seemed to live in the world of tradition. To him, that emotionally perceived world of vision is more true than the world he lives in. Though Farrukh has some similarity with Nazrul, in so far as the revival of the Muslim tradition is concerned, yet they differ in the presentation of this tradition. Nazrul never allegorized or symbolised the tradition or the myths as he derived the imagery from his own experience. Farrukh, on the other hand, always symbolises the use of a myth, and has achieved considerable success in using the Muslim past and Muslim myths competently. He is pursuing this trend faithfully and seriously.

Before independence Syed Ali Ahsan had a similar enthusiasm for recreating the glorious past of the Muslims in the perspective of the present in the manner of Eliot. His *Chahar Darvesh*, *Makka Moazzamar Pathey* and two verse-plays written after the pattern of Yeats's Noh plays — *Korbani* and *Zohra-o-Mushtari* bear clear testimony to this. In the post-independence days, however, his approach has changed and it will be discussed later. Talim Husain also uses as does Farrukh, the Muslim tradition in his poems. He is successful in rendering these ideas with true poetic sensibility. He has shown great craftsmanship in using Arabic and Persian words adequately and in their proper context.

The other two contemporary poets who deserve mention are Ahsan Habib and Abul Husain. Ahsan Habib is a socially conscious poet, who feels intensely for suffering humanity, but presents people with subjective and impressionistic imagery. This sympathy with the underdog and his intimate awareness of social problems do not seem to have aroused any poignant emotional conflict in him. His poetic sensibility is not torn by the restlessness of the modern world and his vision is not perturbed by the complexities of modern society, though he mostly dwells on them. It seems he is aware of these problems but is not attached to them. He has not lost hope and faith in the eternal values, and is optimistic. In his satirical poems he has shown his intimate social consciousness.

Like Ahsan Habib, Abul Husain is also a poet of frustrated middle class sensibility but the awareness and experience are drawn from within himself: his poems are highly individualistic. He always tries to keep the conventional romantic clicheout and introduce, even in his love poems, a rugged colloquial poetic diction. In this satirical poems he has shown a sense of detachment.

Syed Ali Ahsan who started writing poetry almost contemporaneously with Ahsan Habib and Abul Husain has considerably changed his attitude since independence. He is a very conscious artist with a keen sense of the use of words and images. In his poems one can find an artistic blending of traditional sensibility of the East and the

form and approach of the West. Highly skilled technical ingenuity has made him different from other poets. His poems do not express the anguish and frustration of a changing society but instead speak of joy, serenity, sweetness and pleasure.

Syed Ali Ashraf is a poet of deep inward sensibility. The countryside with its changing variety and multi-coloured spectacle attract him most. Mostly he draws imagery from nature around him and presents it in an artistic way. He seems to be pained by the rapid replacement of bliss and happiness by the impact of technological advancement. He has a knack for using Arabic and Persian words but without affecting the melody that the sounds of the words would normally create. Of late he has become more metaphysical, taking sustenance from Islamic tradition.

Sikander Abu Jafar, who was writing even before independence does not, on the other hand write about nature. He has a deep social consciousness and awareness of his environment. He feels for humanity and speaks about people eloquently but he is optimistic about the future of man. He has an adequate expressive language and in metre has shown commendable skill.

Sanaul Huq is a poet of fine sensibilities. His work is essentially based on the country and its tradition. He is also very conscious about the use of words in poetry to which he gives a variety of meaning. But the main emphasis is on the form and he has experimented with metre in different ways with considerable success. Sometimes he is fanciful and extremely witty.

Abdul Gani Hazari has a distinctive style of writing. He depicts the tormented society in which he lives and from which he draws the imagery. Other poets of this group are Motiul Islam, Syed Nooruddin, Habibur Rahman, Ashraf Siddiqui and Mufakharul Islam.

In the youngest group of Bengali poets of note, Shamsur Rahman is outstanding. He started writing poetry in a romantic vein, but later on he discovered his true poetic fervour in a different style. He is a typically urban poet and has successfully rendered the lamentation and frustration of modern man with surprisingly keen sensitiveness. His imagery is mostly drawn from the varied experience of city life of urban Bengal with all its torments and anguish. In fact his poems form a living album of this life, and he received the Adamjee Award for his book *Roudra Karatit.*

Hasan Hafizur Rahman is a poet with a larger canvas. His poetic sensibility is an intermixture of much varied experience drawn from the country and the society he lives in. He has an intense love for the land, which he expresses not so much emotionally as intellectually. He brings in contemporary problems but can render them successfully as universal artistic experience. He has a definite and distinct syntax, at times rough and rugged. Lately he has been concentrating more on literary criticism.

Another poet of this group is Syed Shamsul Haq. His poems are emotionally rich and he has an emotional language also. In his latest book he has used some beautiful images, but he is more engaged in fiction now. There are other promising young poets like Mahfoozullah, Abu Hena Mustafa Kamal, Al-Mahmud, Zia Haider, Muniruzzaman and many others who are enriching Bengali poetry with their contributions.

Fiction

Before independence there were scarcely any Muslim fiction writers. After the great historical novel *Bishad Shindhu* by Meer Mosharraf Husain, who wanted to present the past heritage of Muslims idealistically, arousing interest of the readers in the Muslim past, Ismail Husain Shirazee also wrote a number of novels inspired by the same desire, but they are really romances and not novels.

Then came Mozammul Huq, Kazi Imdadul Huq, Lutfur Rahman, and others. Mozammul Huq wrote a few good novels but he too could not escape the influence of romanticism.

Kazi Imdadul Huq showed the real social consciousness of a novelist in his *Abdullah*. He saw life with deep introspection and in *Abdullah* he depicted the conflict between two classes of people: one group representing the old beliefs and superstitions and the other representing the modern concept of rational and logical thinking. Lutfur Rahman, an elegant prose writer of Muslim Bengal, also wrote some novels dealing mostly with the finer virtues and values of humanity. After them, several Muslim authors considerably developed this form. Some of them are Wajed Ali, Shahadat Husain, Ibrahim Khan, Akbaruddin, Sheikh Fazlul Karim, Abul Mansur Ahmed, Mahbubul Alam, and Abul Fazal. Kazi Nazrul Islam, the celebrated poet, is also a significant fiction writer.

Mahbubul Alam who has been writing since before independence is a powerful writer. His remarkable book *Mofizan* represents a deep and penetrating psychological and social understanding. His characters are portrayed with remarkable insight and a dignified sense of humour. Some critics have found a similarity between the womam characters created by him and those created by D.H. Lawrence. He mostly deals with middle and lower middle class life.

Abul Fazal is a very successful story teller. He is a socially conscious writer though he does not present any specific class struggle as do some other writers. His characters are very lively and vivid and he writes with a simple, elegant, effortless style. Like Mahbubul Alam, he also depicts the problems of middle class people.

Syed Waliullah is one of the most significant and successful story tellers. In his book *Lal Shalu* he has depicted the evils of his society with sympathetic feelings and critical insight. The artistic and objective presentation of a major social evil and its masterly treatment stands out. In his short stories also his penetrating insight is distinctly seen. He is a realist but not a mere narrator of realistic

events. He keeps himself carefully aloof from the characters whom he studies and depicts psychologically.

Abu Rushd, another novelist of the older group has also written a few good novels and short stories. He writes on social problems and presents them skilfully with good plots and structure. He is not an experimentalist and so he does not usually introduce new themes, and it seems he was more successful with his earlier novels than with his later work. His book *Samne Notun Din* is a vivid portrayal of contemporary society and its problems.

Another writer among the older group is Shamsuddin Abul Kalam who has a number of novels to his credit. His novels and stories depict the life of poor unsophisticated common folk of his own part of the country, but he has the vision and insight of a true novelist. He has poetic sensibility and most of his novels and short stories have a lyrical quality. The description and presentation of nature as a background to his characters, drawn from the simple pastoral life of Bengal, has made this author somewhat different from others who are tormented with the complexities of modern society. Abu Ishaq's *Surja Dighal Bari* is a fine novel having excellent narrative qualities. He has portrayed characters drawn from the poverty stricken rural life with sympathy.

There are some outstanding writers who are different from the rest in approach and attitude. Among them Showkat Osman is remarkable. The most important aspect of his work is social criticism. He is greatly concerned with the class differences in society and portrays the class conflict with sympathy for the poor and the unprivileged. "He writes of the man who rows the boat on the river, of the poor cook who prepares rich dishes for his employer, of the wretched cultivator" and many others of the same stock. In depicting unhappiness and misery of these people, he makes fruitful and extensive use of irony and satire. His book *Kritadasher Hashi* won the Adamjee prize.

Allauddin-al-Azad who belongs to the same school also writes on similar themes. He is a powerful writer having subtlety and restraint in mode of presentation, but he is not a satirist as is Showkat Osman. In depicting the class struggle, he is sympathetic, but overemphasis on realism weakens his stories which are saved by his inherent artistic personality. Skilful craftsman as he is, he restrains himself from over-imposition of dogmatic opinion.

Sardar Zainuddin also belongs to the same group of short story writers. He has an artist's insight and some of his stories are artistically laid out, but in his later writings he too, seems to have been influenced by the doctrine of class consciousness which has injured the otherwise conscious artist in him.

Shahid Ali who was once regarded as a promising short story writer has not been writing much now. His stories are centred round the poor peasant class of north Bengal, and by using vivid pictorial imagery he successfully presents the problems of poor

people. His stories are, however, free from dogma. Among others who are showing great promise are Syed Shamsul Huq, Shahid Sabir, Zahir Raihan, Rashid Karim, Abdur Razzak and Shahidulla Kaiser. All of them have a distinct style of their own. The last four have received Adamjee prizes.

Criticism

After independence the first history of Bengali literature was written by Nazirul Islam who has a facile style. His intention was to present some new assessments which so far had not become acceptable. Dr. Shahidullah's *History of Bengali Literature* and *History* of *Bengali Language* are both books of profound scholarship and erudition. Abdul Latif Chowdhry's *History of Bengali Literature* is an addition in this field. Dr. Enamul Huq's *Muslim Bangla Shahitya*, an English translation of which is also available, has provided scholarly research material. Syed Ali Ashraf's *Muslim Tradition in Bengali Literature* made the readers of Bengali literature conscious of the typical Muslim traditions that have existed and are still influencing Bengali literature. Mohammed Mansuruddin's *Bangla Shahitye Muslim Shadhana* is also a notable addition, but probably the best work of this kind is *Bangla Shahityer Itibrittwa*, a joint endeavour of Syed Ali Ahsan and Muhammad Abdul Hai. Both authors have shown remarkable critical ability. Dr. Quazi Din Muhammad's *Shahitya Shambhar* is a valuable book of literary criticism and Dr. Kazi Abdul Manan's recent book *Bangla Shahitye Muslim Shadhana* is a valuable addition with some really original thinking. Anisuzzaman's book *Bangla Shahitya-o-Muslim Manash* is a significant publication and Dr. Nilima Ibrahim's *Unabingsha Shatabdir Bangla Shamaj-o-Bangla Natak* is a serious study of the development of Bengali stage and drama. Apart from these books, a number of books have appeared in recent years on the life and work of Kazi Nazrul Islam. The first of these was written by Syed Ali Ahsan who made a sound critical assessment of the poet. Another book on the topic is Quazi Motahar Husain's *Nazrul Kavyh Parichiti*. Dr. Nilima Ibrahim's *Sharat Prativa* is a voluminous critical study of Sharat Chandra.

There have been many books written on other literary and cultural subjects, such as Motahar Husain Chowdhry's *Shahitya Shangskriti Katha*, a very valuable study. Muhammad Abdul Hai's *Shahitya-o-Sangskriti*, *Bhasha-o-Shahitya* and *Toshamod-o-Rajnitir Bhasha* are enjoyable books of criticism. Abul Fazal's *Shahitya-o-Shangskriti Shadhan* and Abul Kalam Shamsuddin's *Drishtikon* are two other competent endeavours. Dr. Mazharul Islam has published *Shahitya Pathey* and Ahmed Rafiq's *Shilpa Shangskriti Jivan* is an intellectual and analytical work.

There is writing on the principles and forms of literary criticism, a very difficult arena, and not many people have attempted much in this line. The critics of East Pakistan have attempted to synthesise the new criticism that was flourishing in England under the influence of Eliot and this country's own literary traditions. Among the

critics of East Pakistan who recently show a marked impact of Western criticism are Syed Ali Ahsan, Syed Ali Ashraf, Syed Sajjad Husain, Munir Chowdhry and Hasan Hafizur Rahman. In his book *Kavitar Katha* (on poetry), Syed Ali Ahsan drew inspiration from Eliot's music of poetry and his interest in the structure of words. He also indicated that in order to appreciate modern poetry, critics should get rid of their conventional demands for usual images and similes. In his later essays, however, he has been trying to interpret the poetic tradition by stressing mainly the entire linguistic tradition of Bengali poetry. Syed Ali Ashraf in his *Kavya Parichaya* (Introduction to Poetry) tried to trace certain common principles which he found in both Western and Eastern aesthetics. Syed Ali Ashraf judges the greatness of a poem by analysing how far the poet has been able to integrate emotional and intellectual aspects of his consciousness.

Hasan Hafizur Rahman is a competent critic and has attempted to judge the latest poets of East Pakistan with reference to the standard set by Eliot. Other critics such as Syed Sajjad Husain, Muhammad Abdul Hai, Khan Sarwar Murshid, Sirajul Islam Chowdhry and Abdul Mannan Syed show varied influences of Western criticism. The continuous efforts of these writers to find a new method of critical assessment have considerably influenced the younger group of poets and critics in East Pakistan.

Apart from literary criticism, prose writings include history, science, economics, biographies, juvenile literature, travelogues and religion.

Drama

In the field of play writing East Pakistan has made a considerable contribution. In the pre-independence days Muslim paywrights were not numerous because Muslims were cold towards drama and art of acting. Prominent ones of the time included Mosharraf Husain, Mohammad Abdul Karim, Nazrul Islam, Ibrahim Khan, Shahadat Husain, Akbaruddin and Nurul Momen. The first among them was Meer Musharraf Husain. He depicted in his play, *Zamindar Darpan* the evils of the Permanent Settlement. Incidentally, this is the first socially conscious drama written by a Muslim. After that an upsurge of nationalism flooded Bengali literature. Hindu playwright wrote plays on nationalistic themes. This also brought a sense of awakening in the Muslim minds and, as a result, Muslim started writing drama on these themes. This is evident in the plays of Ebrahim Khan and Shahadat Husain and the urge automatically found a source of inspiration in the regeneration of Turkey. Ebrahim Khan wrote two dramas about the two Turkish heroes, Kamal Pasha and Zaglul Pasha. His *Kafela* also reflects the hopes and aspirations of the emerging Muslim middle class. Shahadat Husain wrote historical plays, namely, *Sarfaraz Khan*, *Nawab Alibardi*, *Anarkali* and *Masnade Moha*. Kazi Nazrul Islam wrote two romantic plays *Jhilimili* and *Aleya* in addition to his poems on Anwar Pasha, Kamal Pasha and Chiranjib Zaglul.

The next dramatist who wrote some good historical drama is Akbaruddin. His first play *Shindhu Bijay* is based on the conquest of Sind by Muhammad Bin Quasim and he wrote another historical drama on a similar theme, entitled *Nadir Shah*. He has also written a social play entitled *Azan*. Abul Fazal had attempted to dramatise the life of Quaid-i-Azam but not with much success.

The most outstanding among the post-independence playwright is Nurul Momen. The first play of this dramatist, *Nemesis*, is a long one act play published in 1948. It was hailed as the first conscious effort in dramatic craftsmanship in East Pakistan. The second work of Nurul Momen is *Rupantar* which has some similarity with the *Chirakumar Shabha* of Tagore in so far the wit and characterization are concerned. His latest drama *Naya Khandan* is good and Nurul Momen has certainly opened up a new avenue in the field of drama for other entrants to follow.

Another dramatist who deserves particular mention is Askar Ibne Shaikh. His successful plays are *Virodh*, *Padma*, *Titumir* and *Agni Giri* in which he has extensively used the life of East Bengal. *Agni Giri* is based on the Sepoy Revolution. Showkat Osman, a good novelist, has written a few plays such as *Tashkar-o-Lashkar*, *Amlar Mamla* and *Kakar Mani*. The first two are successful as satires rather than as dramas, but *Kakar Mani* is a good specimen of a play which successfully mixes realism with fantasy.

Munir Choudhry is also a very powerful playwright. In his *Kabar*, an one act play, he has expressed a social truth with great success. His dialogues are sharp and forceful. He has a fine sense of humour. His *Manush* and *Raktata Prantar* based on the battle of Panipat have established himself as an eminent playwright of the language. His translation of Shaw's *You Never Can Tell* is also a valuable addition to dramatic literature.

Jasimuddin's *Beder Meye* is essentially a folk play where the pathetic life of a snake-charmer's wife is narrated. It was a lyrical appeal. Azimuddin's *Mohua* is also a play on this pattern.

A new experiment in Bengali drama is Farrukh Ahmed's verse play, *Naufel-o-Hatem*. The dialogues are emotional and romantic, and he has experimented also in the metre.

Syed Waliullah's *Bahipir* deals with a novel story. It won the PEN prize. He is essentially a novelist and so his play shows the characteristics of a novel. Other playwrights who deserve mention are Ibrahim Khalil, Gholam Rahman, Ashrafuzzaman, Obaidul Huq and Abdul Huq.

SINDHI

Sindhi, an ancient language affiliated to the Indo-Aryan group like Bengali and Punjabi, has a rich literary heritage, particularly in folk literatures. Some of it is being published by the Sindhi Adabi Board in as many as forty volumes. Past work in this language contrasts with the present, specially during the post-independence period

which has brought about a vast change in both the language and literature.

Sindhi literature of former period is indigenous in character, despite the all-pervading influences of Arabic and Persian. Not only the basic structure of the language and its vocabulary, but the prosody, spirit, sentiments, allusions, themes and sources bear a local stamp. The works of the greatest Sindhi poet, Shah Abdul Latif Bhitai, have profuse regional elements and the feeling continued to be indigenous in both poetry and prose for centuries.

Modern influences began to be felt powerfully during the British period. They affected all languages of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent alike. The developments noticeable in Urdu extended themselves to Sindhi as well. Sindhi came under the influence of English, Persian and Urdu. They were linguistic as well as literary influences. Henceforth Sindhi moved closer to Urdu in vocabulary and literary style, prosody and themes. The Sindhi writers shared with the Muslim writers of the sub-continent, their ideological developments borrowed from the West—the free verse, sonnets, drama etc., as well as the forms. The modern Sindhi script developed in the 19th century. This was an adaptation of the Arabic alphabet with certain special characters to express sounds peculiar to Sindhi.

Poetry

Corresponding to the two distinct periods of the Sindhi language, the Sindhi poetry has two schools—the classical and the modern. The former is composed according to musical scales and is meant to be sung. The latter conforms to Persian prosody and is represented by such poets as Sanga, Gada, Hafiz, Qaleech, Bevas, Fani and Dobbdyal. Independence has accelerated the modern trend, so that the Sindhi language and literature approximate more and more to Urdu and English. A significant development going counter to the archetypal character is the tremendous vogue of the *ghazal*. A large part of present day Sindhi poetry, as it appears in the literary or poetic collections, consists of *ghazals*.

Sheikh Ayaz combines in himself all the varied trends of the day. Besides treading modern paths in poetry, regular and irregular, including songs, he draws upon and elaborates the traditional forms. His *Bhanvar Bhore Akas* won him the Writers' Guild award. To him also goes the credit of having rendered Shah Bhitai's *Risalo* into Urdu verse.

Other significant names in Sindhi poetry are Bardo, Tanwar, Niaz, Shamher Haideri, Zulfiqar, Rashidi, Rashid Lashari, Imdad Ali and Tasj Saeed They moie or less share uniform traits and have a distinctly modern outlook.

Recent Publications

Some of the recent publications are:

Rangon Tehon Rabab	Tanwar Abbasi
Kak Mahal	Shamsherul Haideri

Akriyn Megh Malar	Bardo Sindhi
Soz-e-Ishq	Mohammad Jamman Hala

Fiction

The fiction of the period is best represented by short stories, while the novel and drama have somewhat lagged behind, although Usmani and Siraj have produced some good work. Some of the more significant work of fiction produced in recent years is:

Pankal Khampoes	Sheikh Ayaz
Pishos Pasha	Jamal Abro
Ali-e-Hayat	Ghulam Rabbani
Chand Ja Jamannae	Agha Shah
Ghari Ghari Mik Ghar	Rasheed Bhatti
Nayun Shaha	Ghulam Nabi Modhul
Sonkan Pathar Pyar	Tariq Ashraf
Udas Wadiyan	Hameed Sindhi
Bilo Dada	Ayaz Qadri
Ae Dard Hali Ae	Siraj

Prose

Sindhi prose has developed in several directions. It has accumulated a sizeable treasure of fiction, short stories, plays and literary research and criticism. A good deal of it is also politically inspired. The first stimulus came from Bombay, which was a prelude to the greater renaissance brought about by the struggle for the establishment of Pakistan. Many novels, short stories and plays appeared in the period of literary effervescence between 1933-46. Independence ushered in a new era of intellectual activity as soon as the people disentangled themselves from the enervating and inhibiting effects of the political and cultural domination of the Hindu community. Political emancipation has resulted in enchanced intellectual activity and a marked development of prose.

Journals

Journalism has kept pace with modern requirements. There are several popular daily, weekly, monthly and quarterly journals, *e.g. Ada*, *Firdous*, *Marine*, *Mehraj Shagird*, *Shair*, *Taqaza*, *Mehran*, and *Nain Zindagi*. The last named being the most widely circulated.

The intellectual stir and awakening caused by independence also led to a good deal of literary research and efforts to develop the language as a medium of science and philosophy.

Besides the Sindhi Adabi Board, which has brought out a large number of research works a few other literary organisations like the Sindhi Adabi Sangat are also working for the promotion and development of the Sindhi language and literature. The regional Branch of the Pakistan Writers' Guild has also been active and there are half a dozen publishing firms which are quite productive.

PASHTO

Pashto, the language of the most remote, north-westerly region of West Pakistan, belongs to the Pishascha set of languages, believed to be relics of the old Avestic, sister language of old Persian. Thus

it is of Aryan origin. However, the cast of the language differs widely from that of the living scions of the Indo-Aryan.

Pashto came into prominence during the Muslim period, poetry remaining its chief product with the prose taking a start only from the last century. It has some old epics and a good deal of other written poetry, but the greater part of its poetic literature consists of unwritten folk poetry.

The earliest known poet of Pashto was Amir Karor who flourished a thousand years ago while the *Pata Khazanah* mentions a host of others dating to later periods.

Khushal Khan Khattak, Rahman Baba and Abdul Hameed are memorable names in Pashto verse, which has some poetic forms peculiar to itself, like *tappa*, *Nemkai*, *Badalla*. The utiquitious *ghazal* is there too, and the mystic and religious strains common to Muslim poetry of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent are just as produced here as in other languages.

The Frontier Region remained aloof and undeveloped during the British regime, but this did not affect the growth of the traditional folk poetry in comparative freedom from modern influences. Independence, with its rapid and extensive spread of education, galvanised the region and its people into activity, infusing a new life and spirit into them. Contacts with other parts of Pakistan have increased, extending the intellectual horizon. The result has been not only a resuscitation of the cultural heritage but the introduction of new trends also.

Journals

The main activity has channelled out into poetry, novels, plays, short stories and journalism. The Pashto Academy and literary societies in the educational institutions, like the Islamia College and Edward College, have played a part in the development of literature.

Journalism is playing a useful role — important weeklies and journals, like the monthly *Abaseen*, *Jamhur-e-Islam* and *Ulus*, and the journal of the Pashtu Academy have generated an atmosphere of enlightenment which had been lacking twenty years ago.

Recent Publications

An idea of the extensive nature of the work done in the literary field during the post-independence period is given by the large number of publications by different institutions and individuals.

Some of them are mentioned below:-

Pashtu Darsiat:

Selections from Khushal Khan Khatak, with translations in Urdu.
Diwan Abdul Rahman with Urdu translation.
Diwan Mueezullah Mohmond.
Diwan Mueezullah Mohmond (in Urdu).
Pashtu translation of *Saadi's Gulistan*
Pashtu translation of *Zabur-e-Azam*
Pashtu translation of *Paigham-e-Mashriq*

Pastho translation of Musaddas-e-Hali
Adam Durkhani
Bengali Sundre
Urdu par pashto ka Asar
Gul Sanobar
Islami Fikr

Idara-i-Matbuat Pakistan:
Shakoor Guluna
Da Abasin Chapi
Ulus Inqilab-o-Azadi
Auliya-e-Kiram
Murraqa-i-Mashahir

Miscellaneous

Diwan-e-Hijri	Compiled by Namaih Khalil
Diwan-e-Hussain	-do-
Wrokha Khazana	-do-
De Zamir Awaz	-do-
Diwan-e-Nasar	-do-
Diwan-e-Muizullah	-do-
Diwan-e-Muizullah Mohmond	
Pakhtona Leekwal	-do-
Tarikh-e-Reyasat-e-Swat	Asaf
Armanuna	Mutifullah
Anware Tauheed	Ghulam Rabbani
Dars-e-Amal	Abdullah Jan Asar
Palashe	-do-
Saluama Aus	-do-
Afkar-e-Khatak	Mohd Zaman Khatak
Tareekh-e-Pashtoon	Qazi Ataulla Jan
Sarf-o-Nahvo	Azim Shah Bokhari
Al Farooq	Ghulam Qadir
Diwan	Abdur Rahman
Diwan	Abdul Hamid Masho Khalil
Dabedia Gulna	Syed Rasul Raza

BALUCHI

The nature and position of Baluchi is virtually the same as that of Pashto. An area that remained undeveloped for a long time nevertheless possesses a rich tradition of folk lore expressing the life of its hardy people. Epics, narratives, ballads, love poems and religious verse represent the poetic heritage.

The wave of political and social consciousness that swept over the area strongly affected its literature also. Independence opened a new chapter in its history when the Baluchi intelligentsia began to play an active part in the life of the people. Their social awakening has sparked off a spirit of patriotism reflected in the poetry of Gul Khan Naseer, and others, for poetry, already of a high order, continued to flourish. Prose developed mainly in the form of short stories.

The press and radio have proved a vital factor in the development of Baluchi since 1947 and has contributed a good deal to its literature.

Two magazines, *Baluchi* and *Uman*, were started after 1947. These were succeeded by the monthly *Olusu* and the weekly *Nautun Dair*. Talks over the radio and discussions and papers on various topics for the first time showed the potentialities of the language, which has proved itself capable of expressing modern ideas. Essays, plays, short stories and novels began to be written. A number of new words have been coined or borrowed from English, Persian and Urdu.

26. FINE ARTS

Introductory.

Background. Religious Traditions; Folk Traditions; Modern Influences.

Painting. The Environs; Historical Traditions; Classification of Present Day Painters; Art Centres; Recent Activity.

Music and Dance. Traditions and Trends; Centres of Activity; Recent Concerts and Festivals; Foreign Tours.

Drama. Comparative Traditions of East and West Pakistan; Important Centres and Dramatic Groups; Recent Performances.

Architecture. Heritage; Modern Architecture.

Pakistan has had a rich heritage in the creative arts, going back even to prehistory. There have been artistic styles and techniques in painting and music, dance, drama and architecture that were developed in these parts or forged by the culture to which this country is an heir. These traditions, blending at the more sophisticated centres with new influences, today create what may be called Pakistani art. At the more common level, the men and women of this country delight in colour, form and rhythm. Even the craftsman is an artist with an eye for design, symmetry, harmony and contrast.

In rural Pakistan, which means about 85 per cent of the country, dance and music thrive by their own volition. Apart from the times of festivity, like the beginning of sowing or harvesting seasons, it is common for village people to collect together of evenings and pass an hour or two in such enjoyment. In big cities and towns, however, artistic activity needs organisation and some encouragement in order both to develop and to reach large audiences.

There are, in many cities, some voluntary organisations concerned with different artistic activities. They stage plays or 'variety shows' (the variety comprising dances, songs, musics and skits), and hold painting exhibitions. A big impetus to these activities still comes from the Government. The radio, which is state owned, is an important centre around which music, singing, and dramatic activities in each city revolve. Government also extends direct assistance and encouragement to the arts in several ways. Nearly every city and town of substantial size now has an Arts Council, which is becoming the nucleus of art activities in that region. Some financial assistance is made available to most of these institutions, but they are run on a private and voluntary basis with their own elected executives who raise funds on their own for cultural projects and programmes. Scholarships are awarded for study abroad. Outstanding artists are awarded the President's Medal for Pride of Performance as a special incentive. Artists are included in delegations to

foreign countries, and special art delegations are sponsored by government. Pensions are given to families of deceased or incapacitated artists.

BACKGROUND

Religious Traditions

As in most other cultures of the world, the fine arts in this country had their origin in religious rites and institutions. Since all religious philosophies in these parts preached strict asceticism, early art was a form of worship—an offering of the most beautiful to the most mighty by the most humble. In any other form or for any other purpose it was considered a self-indulgence, and therefore, sinful. Artistic virtuosity was thus illumined by faith. Gandhara sculpture, the exquisite statuary of Taxila civilisation, the magnificent architecture of the mosques, the elaborate, ornate handwritten copies of the holy Qu'ran were just a few manifestations of this devout spirit. The early music and drama likewise were nearly entirely religious in character.

This attitude kept the artist from looking at art for its own sake, and resulted in the mediaeval compromise between the aesthetic and the utilitarian. This is the reason for the craftsman here being so much of an artist also. If a thing of beauty could also be useful then it could be justified. The elaborate pottery, ornate furniture, rich garments, and richer jewellery were some examples of this compromise. But all art had to receive the full sanction of its religious, and hence social, surroundings, and so the artist could not be daringly original.

Folk Traditions

Side by side with art as an expression of faith was the delineation of that secular spirit which comes down from before the times of formal religion. This folk tradition celebrated the power of the elements and the basic goodness in human nature. It was far from being a weak subsidiary stream, for it had survived both the ages of formal dogma, and the later scepticism. It was the spirit which kept alive the basic interest in human emotion and the surrounding natural phenomena that man inhabits, and it was one of the strongest influences on his life. This old tradition was universal and timeless in its very essence. Intuitive wisdom, natural wit, and the basic relationship between men formed its impulse and provided it with its themes. In form it reflected the natural, yet enduring, rhythms and images of life.

Modern Influences

Modern Pakistani art is a fusion of the formal patterned art with the spontaneous endemic tradition. It is, however, not a simple fusion, for, there has entered into the consciousness of the modern Pakistani artists all the conflicts of twentieth century life. There is, besides the mere reproduction of these moods of doubt and depression, a conscious soul-searching. The most significant event in the development of art during the last ten years is the artist's conscious search for meaning and his attempt to portray complex states of

being. Therefore, rather than an act of worship, or a pagan paean, art in Pakistan today is a serious intellectual activity, a critical attitude, a mirror of the various multitudinous changing shapes and images that life in Pakistan presents to the sensitive, disturbed artist. In its range and sincerity it presents a rich feast for the art lover, and holds out the promise of better things to come.

The immediate past has shown a steady increase in artistic activity all over Pakistan. New societies have made their beginnings. New names have won laurels in different fields, and the older have continued their work steadily.

PAINTING

The prolific output of paintings in Pakistan perhaps equals that of any other country, although as in all things in a formative stage, there is evidence here of some confusion and complacency.

The Environs

Expression through colour is one of the characteristics of the East. The phrase 'the colourful East' is more than a mere cliche. The natural landscape provides a dramatic variety of colours and forms. The luxurious verdure of East Pakistan, the majesty of the Khyber, the beauty of Kaghan, and the light and shades of the undulating desert lands provide a fabulous range of contrasts for an artistic eye.

The religious and social traditions of the country are a constant spectacle of colour. Intellectually developing country is by itself stimulating. The painters have very ably portrayed the changing social scene.

The Techniques

Miniature Painting

Pakistani artists have been bold in their experimentations with technique. The local Muslim tradition was heavily influenced by the art of those Central Asian and Persian artists who came to the courts of the early Mughal rulers of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. Persian miniature painting has been the model of some of the greatest artists of the country, even to the present day. Tempered with the genius of such artists as Abdul Rahman Chughtai and Fyzee Rahamin, it remains a great living tradition, although also with a majority of minor artists it has been the model of a weak imitation. It remained the dominant tradition partly because it combined well with the elaborate calligraphic tradition in serving to illustrate historical documents, *diwans*, and, most important of all, copies of the holy Qu'ran. The sure lines and minute details of portraiture are followed by an important school of painters of the present day.

Greek and Buddhist Influences

Portrait painting in this area has also been heavily influenced by Greek sculpture and painting, which became part of the heritage after the sweeping Greek invasion of the Indus valley and prepared the ground for the growth of the renowned Buddhist art, better known as the Gandhara art which flowered in the ancient Gandhara region from the first to the 7th century of the Christian era. The

formal graceful lines have influenced both modern sculpture and portraiture.

Historical and Folk Design

Indigenous folk designs and colour techniques — such as indigo dyeing—have also, like well practised geometrical formulas, survived through the ages and now provide a strong native foundation. Modern artists have been inspired by the motifs and designs from Moenjodaro, Harappa, Thatta, Lahore, Taxila, Swat, Mainamati and many other ancient cultural centres.

Modern Painters

A majority of Pakistani artists have examined traditions with a critical eye. They have tried to take from tradition the best it had to offer and transform it into something modern. Most of the leading painters have also studied art in the art centres of the West and the Far East and have examined their own heritage in the light of what they saw and learnt. They have freedom in their work. For this reason it is difficult to delegate these artists to particular schools of painting. However, the usual classifications can also be applied to them.*

Traditionalists : The traditional artists of Pakistan follow the Mughal School of painting or the old convention of Western painting, sometimes described as academic painting. The leading followers of the Mughal School are Abdur Rahman Chughtai (born 1899) and Haji Sharif, a miniature painter. Water colours account for the bulk of Chughtai's works. Also his drawings, in particular, his etchings, are remarkably effective and successful. Allah Buksh, a portrait painter and muralist, and S. H. Askari, also a portrait painter, follow the old convention of Western painting.

Modern Realists: A large number of painters of both East and West Pakistan belong to the progressive school of modern realism. The largest organised group in East Pakistan at Dacca is led by Zainul Abedin (born 1917) and in West Pakistan at Lahore by Mrs. Ahmad. The creative work of Zainul Abedin is imbued with deep social content and passion peculiar to an outstanding painter-realist. He displayed himself as a past master of drawing in the series of over 2,000 drawings of "Famine in Bengal in 1943". Mrs. Ahmad, who heads the Panjab University Fine Arts Department, has trained an army of women artists who carry the message of art through the length and breadth of the country.

There are many individual artists, both young and old (like Nagi and Shaikh Ahmad of Karachi and Khawaja Shafiq and Qamrul Hasan of Dacca) who paint realistically.

Modernists: The modernists have given up realistic painting and adopted different modern styles. They are known, from the

*One classification of the Pakistani artists (by Jalaluddin Ahmad) has defined them as follow: Chughtai and his Contemporaries; Realism and Variations of Naturalism; The Evolution of a New Visual Vocabulary; and Experiments by Younger Artists. Another grouping (by Dr. Hans Steber, 1963) has it as follows: Nature Lyricists; Sophisticated Formal Artisis; Abstract Painters.

variations in their styles, as abstractionists, semi-abstractionists, expressionists and surrealists.

Leading pure *abstractionists* are Gulgee, who does on the one hand fine modern portraits with free brush strokes, and on the other, large abstract studies that are in great demand in public buildings, banks and hotels; Shemza; Parvez and Saifuddin. The *semi-abstractionists'* class is led by Shakir Ali, who is the principal of the Lahore Art College. Anawarul Haque of the Dacca Art Institute also belongs to this class. The *expressionists* use figurative themes but distort them under the stress of emotion. Sadequain and Hamidur Rahman, mural painters, are two leading artists of this class. The first has already built a great reputation abroad. He has developed a remarkable expressionist style in which intensely human themes are presented with powerful exaggeration.

A class by herself, Miss Zubeida Agha used to paint *surrealistic* pictures and now creates work which are apparently very simple but full of symbolic significance of a deep soulful quality.

Art Centres

The main art centres in the country are: the Art Institute at Dacca, the National College of Arts at Lahore, the Fine Arts Department in the Peshawar University, and the Institute of Art and Design at Karachi. In addition, there are the local Arts Councils, the Council for National Integration in some major cities, and various private art circles, foreign and semi-foreign cultural centres like the Pak-American Cultural Center and the USIS, the Alliance Francaise, the Friendship Library, the German Cultural Centre, and the British Council.

Among art galleries, the premier one is the Contemporary Art Gallery at Rawalpindi. Opened in November 1961, it is in the competent hands of Miss Zubeida Agha and regularly holds exhibition of talented artists. Another gallery in Rawalpindi, opened in November 1963, is Jahangir's Gallerie Co-op. It keeps on display a wide assortment of Pakistani paintings for sale. In Lahore attempts are being made to establish some permanent galleries. The Co-opera bookstall set up a small gallery where modern artists showed their work but it has closed down now. In Karachi, two new galleries were opened in 1966.

Peshawar, the area where Gandhara art flourished in the early centuries of the Christian era, has an active Department of Fine Arts at the University, and another organisation called the Abasin Arts Society.

Recent Art Activity

Lately, most of the older groups have not produced many new works themselves but were mostly busy guiding the new-comers. They have been either teaching art or organising art activities in the country. A few are teaching abroad. In West Pakistan the National College of Arts has attracted some older painters enough to make them live and work in Lahore.

Among the new, there has been intense artistic activity. Art institutes are generally full of talented students. There are many who have held their first exhibitions recently. Many have also won top laurels in national competitions and the work of some has been hailed abroad.

An important event for the painters was the National Exhibition of Paintings held at the Pakistan Arts Council, Dacca, in April 1965. Prizes were awarded for outstanding works. Several one-man shows were held at the Dacca Arts Council, the Press Club, and the Bangla Academy. Four young painters had a joint exhibition of their works sponsored by the Arts Ensemble. Another joint exhibition of the drawings, paintings, and ceramics by sixteen top artist members of the East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts was held at that College. Some other recent showings in East Pakistan included: work of fifteen young painters at the Arts Council; annual exhibition of the work done at the East Pakistan College of Arts and Crafts; collection of sculpture and modelling of the Bulbul Academy of Fine Arts at the Academy; a comparative exhibition of the Pak-US Art at the Art College; a large Children's Art Exhibition at the Arts Ensemble Galleries, and an exhibition at Sylhet to depict the artistic life of that region. Two Bengali seven year old youngsters won the gold and silver medals for the second and third prizes respectively at the eighth International Painting Competition for children in Rome.

The Arts Council in Karachi has been organising one-man shows of artists for both the wings of the country. Several other organisations in Karachi, like the Nazrul Academy, the Alliance Francaise, the Pak-American Cultural Center and the Friendship Library, offer one-man and group shows.

In Lahore, most of the exhibitions are organised by the National College of Art, the Fine Arts Department of the Punjab University and the Lahore Arts Council. Besides the inter-collegiate exhibitions and the exhibitions of the works of the students of these centres, works of the painters and sculptures of the country are frequently on display. The Pakistan Council for National Integration has also been taking keen interest in the promotion of the arts. One of its interesting programmes was entitled, 'The Voice of the Artist', in which local artists discussed problems of art in the country.

The shifting of the capital to Rawalpindi and now to Islamabad has intensified art activity in that region. Many prominent artists have settled down there. The Contemporary Arts Gallery is a most active organiser of painting exhibitions. Apart from the one-man shows that it holds at regular intervals, the Gallery recently brought together a variety of paintings by fourteen little-known self-taught artists from Karachi.

In Peshawar, newly-found pieces of ancient sculpture are regularly exhibited accompanied by lectures and film shows on the subject.

The students of the Peshawar University Fine Arts Department recently held a very successful exhibition to sell hand-painted greeting cards. A paintings competition was also organised by the Abasin Arts Society. The encouragement given to budding painters was nowhere more apparent recently than in the number of children's exhibitions and painting contests held all over the country. Peshawar held the largest one. It had 73 paintings from its own area alone, 119 from East Pakistan, and 53 from Japan.

In Hyderabad, a significant recent exhibition was one of outstanding paintings and sculpture of the region held by the Rotary Club as part of its silver jubilee celebrations. The exhibition showed a wide variety of themes and techniques. Similarly exhibitions were later held at the local USIS, the Arts Council, the Press Club, and educational institutions.

The Indian military attack on Pakistan inspired many Pakistani painters to produce new paintings, sometimes markedly different from their usual technique. Sadequain held a showing of a collection of newly done sketches which he called the *Cobweb* series. They depict in abstract calligraphic art the horrors of war. The war paintings of other painters were also exhibited in various collections all over Pakistan.

MUSIC AND DANCE

The fundamentals of musical rhythms and dance techniques of Pakistan are very different from those in the Western world. Light music might have caught echoes of Western musical pitch but serious classical music and dance are all indigenous. The main streams come, again, either from religious institutions, later formalized and secularised to become sophisticated court music and dance, or from the folk traditions based on the simple celebrations of nature's bounty and man's humanitarianism.

There is rich store of both instrumental and vocal music. The instruments commonly used are the *Harmonium*, *Tanpora*, *Sarod*, *Rabab*, *Tabla*, *Sitar*, *Shahnai*, *Sarangi*, *Vichitraveena* and the *Flute*. A wide variety of *Raag* and melodies are played to the accompaniment of these instruments. The most popular kind of classical vocal music consists of *Khayal*, *Thumri*, *Kaf*, *Dadra* and *Tarana*, *Qawwali*, *Chaal*, *Kiran* and *Geet*. The tune measures of these are very different from Western music.

In folk music, the *Bhatiali* and *Bhawal* from East Pakistan, the *Bohan* from the Punjab, the *Kafi* from Sind the *Pahari* from the north and the *Purbi* Gujrati and Balochi folk music are some of the rich treasures from the past. They are also as alive today as they were in the past.

Dance Forms

The dance tradition again comes down either from Hindu religious ritual or the folk tradition. Dancing developed into a formalised art in the 19th century when the dancer became something more than a mere entertainer. He became the teacher of grace

and courtesy to the aristocracy. The most popular classical dance forms practised in Pakistan are the *Bharat Natyam*, *Khatak*, *Kathakali* and *Manipuri*.

Leading Exponents

Leading exponents of classical music in West Pakistan are Roshan Ara Begum, Amanat Ali, Fateh Ali, Ustad Ayas Ali, and the brothers Nazakat Ali and Salamat Ali. All of them have been the recipients of the President's Award of Pride of Performance. Nazakat Ali and Salamat Ali who belong to the "Sham Chorsi Gharana" of Ustads coming down from Mughal times, have also been honoured by Afghanistan and Nepal. The top classical singers of East Pakistan are Ustad Raisuddin, Firdausi Begum, Laila Arjumand Banu, Anjuman Ara, and Mumtaz Ali Khan. Amongst the dancers, Gohar Jamil and Dev Kumar stand out.

Centres of Activity

Although holding of dance and music functions does not need an occasion, especially in East Pakistan, the more important times for such festivities are the seasonal celebrations in honour of spring, autumn and the monsoon, and anniversaries of the poets Nazrul Islam and Rabindranath Tagore.

There are innumerable organisations active in these fields. The important ones are the Bulbul Academy, the *Chhayanant* Group of local artists, the Nikkan Institute of Fine Arts (*Nikkan Lalita Kala Kendra*), the Ghanshyam Rhythmic Art Centre, the Arts Councils, the Pakistan Councils and scores of others, including some very active college societies. Cultural activities are intensifying in smaller towns also. Jessore opened a *Lalita Kala Kendra*, a school for vocal and instrumental music; Rangpur started a similar listener's corner; Bogra has the *Saijoni Silper Niketan;* Rajshahi's *Suabani* is an established institution. Similarly there are organisations in West Pakistan.

Radio stations in all towns remain an important centre of classical music. Some of them now organise folk festivals also.

Western classical music has its audience in the bigger cities. In Karachi, the Goethe Institute and the Pak-American Cultural Center made frequent arrangements for this.

Recent Activities

Some of the recent activities in these and other centres are listed in the following paragraphs.

A successful musical evening, recently organised by the Bangla Academy was based on the lyrics of Madhusudan Dutta. *Shyama*, a dance-ballet of Tagore, was produced under the auspices of Pakistan's Little Ballet Troupe on the occasion of Universal Children's Day.

Nakshi Kathar Math (Field of the Embroidered Quilt), a dance drama by Jasimuddin, was successfully presented by the Nikkan Institute of Fine Arts. Another successful ballet, *Mahua*, which has its origin in the folklore of the Mymensingh district, was staged by

the same Institute. The Chhayanant group of artists presented several elaborate music programmes. The Manipuri population of Sylhet held a two-day festival of Manipuri music and dance under the sponsorship of the Arts Council at Sylhet.

Radio Pakistan has been organising folk festivals. At one of them it presented Jasimuddin's *Beder Meye*. In Chittagong it organised an open air folklore festival. A folk festival was sponsored by the local Arts Council at Faridpur.

In Karachi the Arts Council has held several concerts. Ustad Habeeb Ali's *Raag Kausi Kendra* on the *Vichitroveena* and *Kausi Kausha*, on the *Been*, *Hemawati* sung by Amanat and Fateh Ali, Hameed Ali Khan's *Kafi Kausha*, the *Ghazals* of Malika Pukhraj and Laila Arjumund Banu, *Raag Bhopali* by Nazakat Ali, and Salamat Ali's *Mian Ki Malhar* were the highlights of these programmes.

The Nazrul Academy has been very active. During the celebrations of the Bengali New Year in April last, it had a programme of modern and folk music.

Some of the most enjoyable music programmes in Karachi are the musical soirees arranged by the Press Club and Radio Pakistan. They promise to become regular features owing to the response they draw. Musicians like late Ustad Bundu Khan, Ustad Hameed Ali Khan, Salamat Ali, Fateh Ali, Suraiya Multani, Mukhtar Begum, Farida Khanum, Sushila Mahtani, Misri Khan Jamali, Ustad Umrao Khan, Kabir Khan, Allah Ditta have, in the past, delighted the audience with a wide range of music.

Among its frequent musical programmes the Pak-American Cultural Center has also presented colourful evenings of folk songs and dances from East Pakistan.

There are people in Pakistan who have studied Western classical music. They have formed the Western Music Foundation of Pakistan, and the pianist-composer Feroze Buchome is its moving spirit.

The Bulbul Academy presented, on a recent occasion, a variety of dances such as the Chittagong hill dance, *Chand Sultana*, *Harvest*, *A couple in the Rain*, *Bhangra* and *Anarkali*. On Bulbul's birthday, a ballet item *Retrospection* and a Sindhi folk dance *Ho Jamalo* were of particular interest. The Ghanshyam Rhythmic Art Centre, on one of its anniversary celebrations revived an exotic dance of the Kalash tribe called Chirangash. The Ghanshyams also successfully combined the *Luddi* with the *Bhangra*. They have in fact worked hard to evolve dances based on national traditions and life.

Every year Lahore holds a five-day All-Pakistan Music Conference. A recent event was the programme of dance and music organised in connection with the Afro-Asian Seminar on Art, Culture and Literature.

In the Music Conference most of the outstanding musicians participated. *Geet*, *Ghazal*, *Thumri*, *Dadra*, *Khayal*, *Qawwali*, light classical music and folk music provided a wide variety. The aim of

the programme for the Afro-Asian Seminar was to present before delegates of several countries of the two continents, the full range of typical regional music, as well as classical music. Khamiso Khan played Sindhi folk songs on the *Alghoza*, a wind instrument of the southern region of West Pakistan; Fareeda Khanum, Iqbal Banu, and Nazeer Begum gave Punjabi and Kashmiri songs on the *Dholak*; Mohammad Sharif played *Raag Pahari* on the *Sitar;* Munir Sarhadi played the *Saranda*, a string instrument of the north; the East Pakistan folk singer Abdul Alim sang a fisherman's song; and a team of East Pakistani dancers performed a dance sequence called *Across the Green Meadow*. The Pakistan Council for National Integration held an illuminating seminar on 'Classical Music and its Future Evolution in Pakistan'.

The open air theatre in Bagh-e-Jinnah presented *Heer Ranjha*, a ballet of the famous Punjabi love story. A 'Festival of Golden Corn' was sponsored by a local Folk Art Circle of Lahore.

Rawalpindi also held an All Pakistan Music Conference in 1965. The leading musicians of the country participated, and the pattern was very much the same as that of Lahore. The Pakistan Council for National Integration also holds regular music programmes in Rawalpindi. The Gordon College which has the largest auditorium in the city makes its contribution. The Nazrul Birth Anniversary was celebrated with a programme based on his poems. The Army has had a tradition of inviting musicians and dancers to their clubs and functions. As part of Pakistan Day Celebrations they organise an elaborate programme at the Army Sports Stadium. During the Frontier Corps Week held at Miranshah, all the units of the corps presented regional folk dances. They also helped in organising a festival of music and dance at Murree in summer which promises to become an annual feature.

The Hyderabad Radio has planned its programme in a way which allow one large-scale audience participation programme every month. The annual anniversary of Radio Pakistan, Hyderabad, in August is celebrated with a musical concert in the Open Air Theatre of the Municipal Gardens in which all the top artists of Pakistan participate. Radio Pakistan, Hyderabad, is trying to extend its activities into the interior of the region. It arranged a music concert at Khairpur which was relayed directly on the Hyderabad radio.

Recent programmes at Peshawar include a big *Qawwali*, the *Heer Ranjha* ballet, a ballet on the "Freedom Struggle of Kashmir", and a folk music programme. Colourful and interesting programmes of dance and drama have also been staged by the Air Force and the Navy.

Foreign Tours

Pakistani artists occasionally go on tours abroad. One troupe went to Afghanistan in 1964 to participate in *Jashn-e-Afghan*; another went to China in 1965 and presented folk and classical dances of various regions; and a third participated in the Commonwealth Festival in England in September, 1966.

DRAMA

Bengali has a wider range of dramatic literature than any of the languages of West Pakistan. East Pakistan has also had a background of sophisticated commercial theatre.

In recent years the East Pakistan stage has attempted to treat more native themes and has made daring experiments. The West Pakistan stage can almost be called the English-Urdu stage. It often presents English plays or Urdu adaptations of English and Continental plays. The Pakistani stage wholly consists of amateur groups.

A venerable name in Urdu drama is that of the late Agha Hashr, a playwright who stimulated the stage of the thirties. Currently Imtiaz Ali Taj, and among the younger group, Ali Ahmed in Karachi, Kamal Rizvi at Lahore and Ali Mansur in Dacca have been active. Zia Mohyuddin, who has won commendations in Britain, specially for his portrayal of Aziz in "A Passage to India", remains abroad.

There is no lack of dramatic talent or enthusiasm in the country; there is only lack of opportunities for training and experience with both actors and directors. There is a paucity of good scripts; and there is also lack of funds. Hardly anyone is working on drama full time. The Government has been actively thinking of establishing a national theatre, which will no doubt generate interest in the genre.

Drama Centres

In Dacca some of the most successful ventures are those by University groups. In annual functions a full length play is usually staged, which is far from amateurish. The dramatic performances put up by students of Nazrul Islam Hall, or Jagannath Hall or Dacca Hall are of a very high standard. Other educational institutions with strong drama groups are the Eden Girls College, and the Law College. The Bulbul Academy's drama department has also done well. Drama, however, is a universally appreciated art form in East Pakistan and many industrial concerns like the East Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation, the Accounts and Audit Employees Cultural Association, the National Bank Employees Dramatic Club, the Highway Cultural Association, have put up some laudable performances.

Others include the Dacca Gymkhana, the *Kakali Sangha* the Drama Circle, Dacca, the *Shilpi Shangshad*, the British Council, and the Friends Drama Circle.

Most of their plays are in Bengali, many of them modern plays. On the whole the tendency is to produce something contemporary or something historical. Many dramatists have also been connected with the production of plays — often their own. There are still occasional translations and adaptations of Western plays, some done very successfully, like the Drama Circle Dacca's *Kal Bela*, a translation of "Waiting for Godot". Few write English drama. Khalil-ur-Rehman's "At the Altar of Law" was quite successful. Some of the stage directors are now also working for the television.

Some critics feel that genuine unaffected dramatic activity is

much more intense in the mofussil towns. Towns like Jessore, Chandpur, Natore, Dinajpur, Rajshahi, Patuakhali, Rangpur, Sirajganj, Noakhali and Mymensingh have impressive dramatic activity.

In Karachi there are a sizeable number of Urdu and English plays put up. Playwright and Director Ahmed Ali has been experimenting in Urdu. His *Naya Bokhar* presented by the Avant Garde Arts Theatre was a social satire. *Qissa Jagtay Sote Ka*, another satire written and directed by him, was presented by the National Bank. *Subah Honey Tak* was an Urdu adaptation of *Waiting for Godot*. He tried to present it in abstract, symbolic language. *The Thing* by Saeed, produced by Yunus Saeed, was also an experiment with new techniques. Nizamul Huq's *Rishta* based on the topical theme of national integration had dialogue in both Urdu and Bengali. The Nazrul Academy in Karachi also arranges occasional Bengali plays.

An organised group which presents English plays in Karachi are the Clifton Players. They have staged more than fifty plays in their first decade. Their recent presentations have been *A Mid-Summer Night's Dream*, *Gazebo*, *Good-bye Mrs. Pipchin*, and a number of one-act plays. The Karachi Art Theatre Society is another active organisation. A new drama group, The Karachi Theatre formed at the end of 1965 did a good job with the cockney farce *Simple Spymen*. Most of the English medium schools and colleges offer good plays.

In Lahore much of the theatre talent is diverting itself towards television productions. Lahore has the most active Urdu stage in Pakistan. It has also the only Arts Council which runs a theatre workshop. The Government College has a well organised Dramatic Society with a tradition of producing good plays. There are several persons here who have been working hard on this art medium.

Some attempt is also being made to produce Panjabi plays of a good standard. The Arts Council and the Panjab Arts Circle did well with *Sajawal* and *Pukh*. Recently a seminar was held by the Arts Council of Lahore on various aspects of Drama.

In Hyderabad, Radio Pakistan provides the main encouragement for drama. Apart from broadcasting plays, they also stage plays at Broadcasting House.

Rawalpindi has three main groups — The Pindi Play House, The Gordon College Dramatic Club, and The Pakistan Arts Council. In Peshawar plays are staged by the Abasin Arts Society and University and College groups.

ARCHITECTURE

Heritage

Pakistan has a 5,000 year history of architecture. The Bronze Age cities of Moenjodaro and Harappa are the earliest examples of well planned townships showing remarkable skill. The entire architecture is kiln-burnt brick construction in which bricks are laid in headers and stretchers and cemented together by the use of mud mortar or gypsum mortar. The Indo-Greeks had introduced into Gandhara region, the valley of Peshawar, the grid-system of town planning featured by beautiful Ionian and corinthian pilasters

evidence of which is found at Sirkap. The early centuries of the Christian era saw the exuberance of Buddhist monastic architecture. Some good examples are found at Taxila (near Rawalpindi), Shaikhan Dheri (Charsada), Butkara (Swat), and Takht-e-Bahi (Mardan).

After the Muslims came to the sub-continent in the seventh century, the architecture underwent a complete change. Local builders began adapting the new style in place of the old. More prominently, the spires, pyramidal roofs, carvings and human figures gave place to characteristic arches, domes and minarets. Later, the Mughal rule (16th to 18th century) was the period of greatest architectural activity in these parts. Their monuments are spread over the sub-continent, but West Pakistan, and Lahore in particular, has some very fine examples of them.

In East Pakistan, the deltaic land, monsoonic conditions, and lack of stone in alluvial plains, called for a different architectural style. Overgrowth of vegetation has persuaded the builder to overcrowd the space available to him. Terracotta moulded plaques have been the chief beautifying material, and riverine clay, the chief building medium. Solid foundation with rammed earth is another feature of architecture as a provision against recurring floods.

The colonial period (from the mid-nineteenth century) is marked by a developing combination of the Muslim and Victorian styles. English architects collaborated with local builders in Lahore, Quetta, Peshawar, Dacca and other places. Mughal features superimposed on European motifs became a pattern to public and residential buildings. Made of brick and mortar, they had domes and arcades; ornamental towers and turrets, and small pavilion decorated with stone carving or multi-coloured glazed tiles.

Modern Architecture

The new needs after independence, which also made themselves felt with rising urgency, again changed the style of architecture in these parts. Dams and power stations, mills, factories and institutes began to be built. Large blocks of flats, two-storeyed mansions and modern style multi-storied buildings for commercial offices began to go up. The emphasis shifted from ornamentation to utility. Economy of space, speed in building, were new and important considerations.

The traditional designs for protection against glare and heat and the use of indigenous materials for construction work have been replaced by new devices and components which are considered to be more scientific, economical and serviceable. Ferro-concrete and metal frames with brick and slag-concrete filling, metal shutters and other sun-protection devices have come into use. In view of the hot climate of places like Karachi, and heavy rain-fall in Dacca, Chittagong and other parts of East Pakistan, there is a tendency for using *pilotis* in the ground floor, and vertical or horizontal

brise-soleil ventilators on the upper floors. These are designed according to the orientation of individual buildings, like the new headquarters of the State Bank of Pakistan, or the Arts College in Dacca. The open work panels of hollow tiles or pre-cast concrete, like those introduced in the National Library building at Dacca or the Pakistan Arts Council in Karachi, are the latest artistic examples of the way to soften the glare and create lace-like patterns of shadows in a bright, sunny atmosphere. Another important characteristic of modern architecture in Pakistan is the clear integration of the space and material, making the overall structure more comfortable as well as attractive.

There is no parallel between the classical architecture of the Great Mughals and the modern western structures either in scope or scale, except in rare cases like the proposed mausoleum of the Founder of Pakistan — Quaid-i-Azam Mahomed Ali Jinnah — where the designer has made some allowance for the traditional form of architecture in the overall ultra-modern and simplified structure with a view to giving it an individuality which might be characterised as traditional or Islamic by a casual observer.

In the case of town planning, there has been a more revolutionary change during recent years, because of the new problems of industrial and commercial society. A town has to provide all the necessary civic, social, recreational and other facilities to the population, besides houses and shops on a pre-conceived design and with a limit placed upon the ultimate population. It has also to provide private and public open space surrounding the houses, and a green belt around the town for avoiding monotony and giving it a touch of colour in the general arrangement. It is necessary to have such places as public halls, swimming pools, libraries and reading rooms, children's parks and community centres for the purpose of entertainment and for social and cultural activities. The new capital of Pakistan at Islamabad, the second capital at Dacca, and Ayubia, the proposed summer resort near Murree, are being planned on these lines by experienced planners of international repute.

27. ARCHAEOLOGY

Background. Archaeological work before Independence.

Organisation. Department of Archaeology: *Exploration Branch, Epigraphy Branch, Conservation of Monuments, Training.*

Excavated Sites. Sohan Valley; Village Cultures of Baluchistan; Indus Civilisation; Kot Diji; Megalithic Culture; Buddhist Period: *Gandhara, Taxila, Mingora and Udegram, Chanaka Dheri*; Paharpur; Mainamati: *Salban Vihara, Kotila Mura, Charpatra Mura*; Mahasthangarh.

Early Muslim Period. Banbhore.

Some Explorations. In West Pakistan; In East Pakistan.

Museums. In West Pakistan; In East Pakistan.

BACKGROUND

Pakistan has a rich prehistoric and historic past (also see Chapter 2). Although this fact was vaguely known from annals of ancient times, the actual discovery of the prehistoric sites is a comparatively recent occurrence. It was made almost by accident about the middle of the last century. Stuart Piggot in his *Prehistoric India* recounts how, in 1856, two brothers, John and William Brunton, came upon the now famous sites while laying out and building the East *India* Railway from Karachi to Lahore. John, who was in charge of the southern section of the works, later wrote that he had heard of a ruined ancient city, Brahmanabad, not very far from the line of the railway he was building. "I had been much exercised in my mind", he wrote, "how we were to get *ballast* for the line of the Railway? If all I heard was true, this ruined city, built of bricks, would form a grand quarry for ballast". Brahmanabad was therefore, comments Piggot, 'effectually plundered by this uncompromising English engineer, and the line laid'. Similarly on the Multan-Lahore section, John's brother, William, obtained the ballast for his track from the third millennium capital of the Punjab, Harappa. General Cunningham, who was later appointed Director-General of Archaeological Survey in the northern part of the sub-continent, visited Harappa about this time and obtained various antiquities from the workmen at the railway track. These revealed to him the probable presence of ancient civilisations in these parts far beyond the range of recorded history. However, the full significance of these places was not revealed until seventy years later, when the Harappa civilisation was identified and defined.

Although archaeological research continued at an uneven pace, in the last part of the nineteenth and early part of the twentieth century, the work largely depended upon individual initiative and enthusiasm of a Cunningham or a William Johns. As Piggot noted: "Archaeological activity was canalized into an inadequately financed State department, in which workers were comparatively few and

their technique was out of touch with European developments.'' It was not until the nineteen-twenties that the prehistoric sites of Pakistan received attention. Work on Harappa (in present day Sahiwal) was started in 1920, and in 1922, Harappa's twin city, Moenjodaro (Larkana) was recognised (by a local officer of the Survey, R.D. Banerji) and excavation started there. The work on the two sites was co-ordinated by the Director-General of Archaeology, then Sir John Marshal. Excavations at these two sites continued for several years, at Sind from 1922 to 1931 and in the Punjab from 1920 to 1921, and from 1933 to 1934. A comprehensive survey of Sind and the Indus plain between 1927 and 1931 defined the extent of the minor prehistoric settlements within the area dominated by the cities of Harappa and Moenjodaro. Another important excavation in Sind — in a town called Chanhudaro — brought to light important evidence concerning the final phase of the Harappa civilisation.

In earlier years, another great English explorer of Western Asia, Sir Aurel Stein, undertook a search for prehistoric sites in a remote area in the extreme west, in Baluchistan. His journeys to north Baluchistan in 1926-27, and in south Baluchistan in 1927-28, brought to light significant material which linked the prehistory of the north-west of Pakistan with the contemporaneous ancient civilisations of Iran and Mesopotamia. Further discoveries were made in the Lasbela State in the early years of the Second World War which added to our knowledge about the extent and type of regional cultures.

The reports on Harappa, Moenjodaro and Chanhudaro were published in eight impressive quarto volumes between 1931 and 1934.

Another great name in the archaeology of Pakistan is that of Professor (now Sir) R.E. Mortimer Wheeler. He was Director-General Archaeology in the pre-independence sub-continent and later, from 1949-51, was Adviser in Archaeology to the Government of Pakistan. He carried out excavations at Moenjodaro in 1949. He brought the highest standards in European techniques to bear upon his work here, cutting across, for instance, the old tradition whereby stratification of the excavated sites was ignored and 'levels' were fixed by measurement from a datum.

The archaeological work done upto 1947, although very useful in itself, and for providing the base and pattern for further work, still left large ground to be covered. There were vast hitherto unexplored areas; and known sites were to yield a great deal of vital information. The exploring and interpreting of Pakistan's past was thus an open field requiring suitable organisation and much and continuous work on scientific lines.

Organisation

The Directorate of Archaeology was established in Pakistan soon after Independence at Karachi, with Circle Offices at Rajshahi (later shifted to Dacca) and Lahore, each under a superintendent.

Department of Archaeology

In the beginning, the activities of the Department of Archaeology were restricted by the lack of trained staff and by economic stringency. Partition also deprived Pakistan of most of the material necessary for research work, which was largely left in India. In the face of a multitude of difficulties the Department made a modest start and attention was concentrated mostly on the preservation of the principal monuments and excavated sites, some of them of outstanding magnitude.

In 1949, Sir Mortimer Wheeler was appointed Adviser in Archaeology. He worked in Pakistan for a limited period of two years, and in 1950 established the National Museum of Pakistan at Karachi.

Conservation of Monuments

The conservation problem is manifold. Widely differing building-materials, location, and climates involve complicated methods of rear and constant supervision. The conservation work of both parts of Pakistan has now been put on sounder basis than hitherto, with an increased technical staff.

For the treatment and restoration of antiquities and other objects, an Archaeological Laboratory was set up in 1957, at the Old Fort, Lahore, and has now been fully equipped.

The remains of the Indus cities are at present threatened by the shifting Indus river, extreme variations in temperature, ever rising water level and, above all, by the great menace of saltpetre. To find ways and means of preserving these against such adversities, a joint session of UNESCO experts and the Department of Archaeology was organised in 1964. The experts have submitted a report and their suggestions are being implemented.

When any new monument of national significance comes to its notice the Department of Archaeology can take it under its care under the Ancient Monuments Protection Act, 1904.

Exploration Branch

In 1951 an Exploration Branch was created in the Department. Its first Superintendent began excavations at Banbhore, but, because of the lack of trained technical staff, it was not until 1955 that excavation and exploratory work on any large scale could be attempted.

Epigraphy Branch

An Epigraphy Branch has also been created in the Department to survey, collect, and study the epigraphical records of the country. To deal with reports, guides, handbooks, etc., a Publication Branch has also been constituted. A number of books and brochures have been published and detailed reports on excavations are prepared.

Training

To overcome the shortage of technical staff, a training scheme was started in 1957, and so far 15 archaeological scholars, after their training in the Department, have been absorbed into its various branches.

Facilities for the study of archaeology exist at the Universities of Rajshahi, Peshawar and Karachi. University archaeology group

undertakes joint explorations and excavations in collaboration with the Department of Archaeology. Independent spade work is undertaken by the archaeology department of the University of Peshawar.

EXCAVATED SITES

During the last twenty years the Department of Archaeology has undertaken large-scale excavations at a number of sites, ranging in date from the prehistoric to the Islamic periods, in order to unravel the material remains of ancient cultures and to fill the gaps in history and chronology. Some of these excavations are still in progress. Digging operations at Moenjodaro under the direction of Sir Mortimer Wheeler, and at Kot Diji, Mainamati, Lahore, and Banbhore by the Department, have filled up not only gaps but also added substantially to the knowledge of art, architecture, and culture of ancient Pakistan.

Sohan Valley

The earliest man-made implements discovered within Pakistan are ascribed to a remote age dating back to 500,000 years at Potwar plateau in the Rawalpindi district in West Pakistan. In the terraces of the river Sohan crude flakes of that period struck from large pebbles of quartzite have been recovered. This period is known as pre-Sohan period. The Sohan period, marked by better defined tools, and hand-axe stretches from 400,000 to 200,000 years ago. The people seemed to derive sustenance from nature, hunting and gathering food. No cultivation or cattle rearing was done. The place has not yielded any bones or other human remains of the period.

Village Cultures of Baluchistan

Beginning with the survey of 1926-27 and 1927-28 important discoveries have been made in the rugged windswept valleys and foothills of Baluchistan where man established himself as early as 6,000 B.C. as farmer and herdsman. The way of life developed here as an eastern extension of the Iranian plateau culture, and possibly paved the way for the ultimate growth of the Indus civilization.

The sites so far uncovered have been grouped into two main categories, each with evidence of different characteristics.

Prof. Piggot divided these cultures into four culture-groups from the place-names of certain sites, namely, Quetta, Amri-Nal, Kulli and Zhob. The groups are mainly concentrated in former Baluchistan, although a few sites can be noticed in Sind and the Punjab plain. Very important discoveries are still awaited.

Finds of these places include dishes-on-stands like those of the Indus globular beakers, tall botle-shaped vases, small flat-dishes, straight side cups and jars with animal and geometric designs, terracotta figures of women and animals, chert blades, steatite seals and various copper implements.

Indus Civilisation

The discovery of the Indus cities in West Pakistan startled world archaeologists. Sir Mortimer Wheeler, who had long been in Pakistan and has himself directed many expeditions, said: "Here the art

of living in cities, in other words civilisation, had come into being and had co-ordinated human effort on a geographical scale unapproached in prehistoric times. Since its discovery in 1921, the now-famous Indus civilisation has rightly ranked amongst the great civilisations of the ancient world''.

The Indus civilisation spread from the Himalayan foothills to the Arabian sea, covering an area which was double that of ancient Egypt and fourtimes that of Sumer. Southwards it extended to the Gulf of Cambay. Over 100 sites belonging to this civilisation have so far been uncovered. Of these Harappa and Moenjodaro are the two major cities, each about three miles in circumference and 400 miles apart and grew up at about 2,500 B.C. Harappa stood near Sahiwal in the Punjab and Moenjodaro in the Larkana district of Sind.

The Indus Civilisation was contemporary, in part with the Mesopotamian civilisation of *C.* 2,300 B.C. Its earliest stages, however, could not be unravelled since digging was not possible in the waterlogged lower levels.

The cities of Indus Valley were no chance growth. They were built on a rigid scheme of town-planning. They are divided into two parts: an upper and a lower. Moenjodaro, which is more elaborate in planning is dominated by the massively fortified upper city, the citadel, which stands upon a bank or *bund* designed to protect the base of the defence from the floods of the Indus. Inside, on a raised platform stood the principal religious and administrative buildings, a sacred bath (the Great Bath), a cloistered residence, pillared-hall and a large granary.

The lower city was also well-planned. It had wide, straight streets dividing the towns into great oblong blocks, each 400 yards in length and 200 or 300 yards in breadth. Narrow lanes sub-divided the groups of buildings built in kiln-burnt bricks. The city had an elaborate system of brick-covered drains, these being regularly cleared by municipal sanitary squads. The people seemed to have had a remarkably high civic sense.

Among important finds are a dancing girl figurine, a stone bust of a bearded priest, the priest-king, hundreds of terra-cotta figurines and a large number of exquisite steatite seals bearing pictographic inscription which like those of ancient Crete have not yet been deciphered. The terra-cotta figurines suggest the worship of a mother-goddess. No temple has, however, been discovered as yet.

A large number of well-graded weights of different sizes and perfect uniformity have been recovered which show that the people had a strong government and the standardization of weight and measures was strictly enforced. The utensils found here were made of copper or bronze. Iron was not yet known to them. The pottery discovered consists of a variety of jars of different shapes and sizes — plain as well as painted in black on red ground and tiny receptacles for holding toilet articles or cosmetics.

The Indus cities were cosmopolitan. The analysis of the skeletons discovered here clearly indicate different ethnic groups, namely, Mediterranean, Austroloid and Mongoloid. They were of medium height with olive complexion, long head and face and black hair. Their women wore skirt and jewellery, the latter consisted of necklaces and girdles, gold armlets, nose-studs and ear-rings. They had a style of dressing their hair in fan-shaped coiffures. Their children played with toy-carts made of clay. Dice appears to have been a popular indoor game.

The Indus people lived primarily by agriculture. From remains found during excavation it appears that wheat, barely, sesamum, field-peas, a species of *rai* and cotton were freely grown or traded. Outwards, there was a direct link overland as well as by sea with ancient Iran and Mesopotamia. Men and merchandise flowed in and out through the caravan across Baluchistan.

In 1965 an American Archaeological Mission headed by Prof. George F. Dales of the University of Pennsylvania conducted further excavations at Moenjodaro in association with the Department of Archaeology to obtain information on the early phase of the Indus Valley Civilization.

The Mission also tried to find out the causes of destruction of the Indus cities. The general believe of Archaeologists is that the invading Aryans under their warlord Indra, destroyed this civilisation in about 1,500 B.C.* The American Mission, however, did not believe that the Aryans destroyed the Indus Empire. Instead they thought that the enemy of the Harappans was nature, aided and abetted by the Harappan themselves. The process, they say, were speeded up by the 'sardonic twist of the earth's surface'.

Kot Diji

Recently, excavations at Kot Diji revealed for the first time the early Moenjodaro culture pottery and other objects. The site, situated 15 miles south of Khairpur town, was first excavated in 1955. The objects found indicate their makers to be the fore-runners of the Indus people. The latter, when they emerged seems to have overwhelmed the others by violent measures now visible from burnt material found over large areas. The site has thus pushed back the history of Pakistan from 2,500 B.C. to 3,000 B.C.

The Kot Dijians possessed a developed and sophisticated culture. The Harappans appear to have borrowed some ideas from their superior skill in pot making, and from their system of town-planning and fortification.

The Kot Diji site consists of two parts: the higher citadel mound and the lower city, extending far outside. The characteristic Harappan materials recovered from the upper layers represent a well-developed and mature phase. It consists of the usual black on red

* In the *Rig-veda* it is said that Indra fought vigorously against 'Dasus' and 'Dasyus' and destroyed hundreds of their *puras* or forts. Indra is also said to have destroyed the fort of *Hariupio*, which may well be identified with modern Harappa.

pottery with familiar designs, such as the pipal leaf, intersecting circle, peacock, antelope, sun-symbol and various other geometrical and incised ornamentations. In the well stratified Kot Diji layers, eleven occupation levels were brought to light. The occupation levels are marked by massive walls of mud and mud-bricks on stone foundations.

The most interesting feature of the Kot Dijian settlement is its defensive wall around the citadel — one of the earliest known fortification walls in the sub-continent.

The pottery recovered from the Kot Dijian levels constitutes the principal element of this new culture. Its striking feature are a fine thin body, short headed or slightly everted rim and a broad band round the neck in red brown, sepia, or warm black. The pottery is wheel made. The painted decorations were executed with a careful, precise and delicate hand, in sharp contrast with the conventional bold style of the Harappans. The geometric patterns and bands are solid. The principal form is a squat, globular vessel. Other forms include dish-on-stand, thick and delicate vases, flat based and straight walled cylindrical vessels and bowls. The typical Kot Dijian rimless ware bears resemblances to those recovered in 1946 from under the mud brick defences at Harappa.

Megalithic Culture

Many megalithic or large-stone sites have been discovered in both the wings of Pakistan. Three groups of megalithic tombs adjacent to Rajbari on the right hand side of Tambil Road and its neighbourhood in Sylhet district were discovered and protected. In West Pakistan the megalithic sites are in fairly large number along the Hub river near Karachi. A limited survey conducted here in about 30 mile long area have brought to light eight sites. Further explorations are likely to reveal more.

In Dadu, during exploration of the Baran Valley, two such sites were identified.

Megalithic graves are very abundant in south *India* and in the Caucasus and Syria. The Western groups are from 1,000-2,000 years earlier than the south *Indian* series which are dated approximately to 200 BC—50 AC. But despite the seeming remoteness in time and space between Eastern and Western groups it is possible to correlate the two in some fashion. The Karachi series may help in establishing the missing link between these two groups of megalithic graves.

BUDDHIST PERIOD

The Buddhist civilisation flourished in many parts of Pakistan in the early centuries of the Christian era.

Gandhara

The present day Peshawar valley, known in ancient times as Gandhara, is dotted with thousands of Buddhist sites where the renowned Gandhara art flowered, illustrating the life and activities of lord Buddha in the second and third centuries of the Christian era

under the official patronage of the Kushans. The art had developed here quite independently from the main stream of indigenous tradition, adopting techniques from the 'Greco-Roman' art. Thousands of Buddha figures, seated and standing, were beautifully carved out of stone or were made of stucco.

Taxila

Buddhist civilisation is most in evidence in Taxila where the remains of five successive superimposed cultures have been laid bare. Excavations carried out speak eloquently of the highest achievements in education and culture at this ancient centre. An outstanding recovery was the Buddhist University from Bhirmound, the Asoka city. The University was the greatest in the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. It admitted students not below the age of sixteen for advanced studies and taught eighteen *sipas* or branches of learning .

A large number of Buddhist remains have also been recovered from *Purushpura*, modern Peshawar, the capital of the Kushans; *Pushkalavati*, identified with pre-Kushan capital Charsada; Mingora and Udegram, Chanaka Dheri, Sahr-Bahlol, Takhti-Bahi, Mardan, and other places.

Mingora and Udegram

Foreign archaeological missions have explored and excavated certain selected sites in the Gandhara region.

The Italian Archaeological Mission headed by Prof. G. Tucci started work in Swat region in 1955, and continued digging in successive winters.

Excavations were carried out at Mingora and Udegram and a few other sites. At Mingora digging uncovered a large and imposing central stupa surrounded by more than 200 minor stupas. Here, over 7,000 pieces of sculptured slabs and panels of Gandhara art carved in green schist, depicting the life-stories of Buddha, were recovered. The imposing collection from Mingora was found not only well-stratified but associated with datable finds from the relic caskets and with coins, so that to much of it an absolute dating can be ascribed. In one way and another knowledge of the Gandhara region was greatly enriched.

Similarly, excavations at Udegram on a town site which existed at the time of Alexander have been remarkably informative. The town was found to be well-planned. The presence of a large number of coins and rich ceramic material indicated that life had started here in about the fourth century B.C. and lasted till fourth century A.C. The stucco, terra-cotta and stone sculptures and other minor objects of art recovered make a noteworthy contributions to the much needed classification of the Gandhara art.

Chanaka Dheri

In September 1959, the Japanese Mission headed by Prof. S. Mizuno started excavations at Chanaka Dheri in collaboration with the Department of Archaeology with a view to uncovering monastic remains of the Buddhist period.

Excavations at the high mound, which stands about 20 feet above the surrounding level, revealed stratified remains of different periods. The building remains in the top stratum, on the basis of floors and individual plans, were divided into three distinct phases. A variety of small finds were recovered. Among them are pots of spherical shape, often provided with spouts, cooking-pots, bowls, lamps and many sherds with stamped and incised designs. Terra-cotta spindle-whorls, terra-cotta figurines of buffalo, bull, sheep, horse, and birds were also present. Glass bangle fragments of dark colour were extraordinarily numerous.

Excavation at another site, Tureri, which was completed in December, 1964, yielded a life size stone head of the Buddha and a gold-plated votive stupa.

Paharpur

The Buddhist art in East Pakistan was endowed with a vivid terra-cotta sculpture. The greatest attraction here is the *Somapuri Vihara*, also known as Paharpur monastry, which is the biggest single monastry south of the Himalayas. Situated some three miles west of Jamalgunj railway station in Rajshahi district, this unique Buddhist establishment, measuring 920 square feet externally with 177 monastic cells, gateways votive stupas, minor chapels, tanks and numerous other structures for the convenience of the inmates is dominated by a central shrine, conspicuous by its lofty height and architectural peculiarities.

The cruciform style of architecture here in no way resembles the traditional stupa architecture of the sub-continent, but close parallels are found in Mainamati. Outside East Pakistan parallels exist in central Java at Kalasan and in Burma at Pagan (Ananda temple of 1,090 A.C.). The conception undoubtedly originated here signifying the development of an indigenous style of religious architecture, evolved by the synthesis of Hindu and Buddhist elements in the 8-9th centuries A.C. and spread further east.

The extensive series of terra-cotta panels which decorated the outside wall included the Buddha, Siva, dancers, mendicants, musicians, animals, etc. and some hundreds in number, depicting contemporary village life.*

About 400 yards east of the Somapuri Vihara is situated what is known as *Satyapir Bhita* which originally contained the remains of the temple of Tara. The site is *trapezoidal* in shape and had entrance from the south.

The main temple, 48 feet in width and 80 feet in length, is the outstanding structure in the compound. Oblong in plan, it consists of two main parts; the *sanctum* in the northern portion and a pillared hall on the south around which there is a circumambulatory passage. Over 130 votive shrines of different sizes, designs and ornamentation around the temple testify to its fame and sanctity.

*The presence of Hindu gods and goddesses was due to Hindu occupation in the latter period. It was built by the Buddhist Palas in the early 9th century A.C.

Important antiquities recovered here include plaques, carved bricks, a quantity of crystal heads and a bronze statute of Jambhala.

Mainamati

Systematic excavations on the Mainamati range in Comilla district have thrown light on some hitherto unknown important historical facts about the Buddhist Deva rulers (7th-12th centuries A.C.). The whole range of hillocks of about eleven miles is studded with more than fifty Buddhist sites. Excavation was begun in 1955 and continued till recently.

Of the fifty sites, excavation was started at three selected places: Salban Vihara, Kotila Mura and Charpatra Mura.

Salban Vihara

Salban Vihara is situated in the middle of the Lalmai-Mainamati ridge. Extensive excavations here brought to light the remains of a large Buddhist monastery. Built on a square plan, the monastery is a monumental edifice with 550 feet long sides containing 115 cells arranged round a central shrine. The impressive gateway (the only one) to the monastery leads from the north with a 74-feet wide front facade.

Monastery cells were provided with a threshold, a wooden door and usually with corbelled niches in the inner walls. The niches were possibly used for keeping votive images, oil lamp, reading and writing materials.

Built in baked brick in cruciform style, like the Paharpur monastery, the central shrine was an imposing structure and measured 170 feet from arm to arm with an approach to it from the north through a stepped terrace, leading to a 7-feet wide ambulatory passage carried round the entire building.

Kotila Mura

Three miles to the north of Salban Vihara is Kotila Mura. Excavation here has revealed the layout of three principal stupas built on the traditional style which possibly represent the three jewels of Buddhism: *Buddha*, *Dharma* (law) and *Sangha* (the order). The ground plan differs from those of Salban Vihara. The middle stupa is in the form of a Dharma Chakra (wheel of the law). The hub is represented by a deep central shaft arround which spokes of brick walls formed eight deep cells.

The eastern side of the stupas is occupied by oblong halls surrounded by circumbulatory passages. A massive boundary enclosed the stupas and was pierced on the eastern side by three successive grand stair-cases that once led the pilgrims into the shrines.

Charpatra Mura

Charpatra Mura lies about a mile and half to the north of Kotila Mura on raised ground. Excavations in 1956 laid bare the remains of a rectangular shrine, 105-feet in length from east to west, and 55 feet in width from north to south. A large gateway from the east led the pilgrims into the cells on its western side by a covered passage.

The excavations at Mainamati yielded important antiquities, including six copper plates, coins, a number of votive images of Buddha, Bodhisattvas and Buddhist goddesses, a large number of terra-cotta plaques, carved bricks, stone sculptures, pots and interesting details of architecture.

The various sites at Mainamati appear to be of great historical interest. The style of terra-cotta plaques here suggests a date between 8th and 10th centuries A.C.

Mahasthangarh

Situated about eight miles west of Bogra district are the ruins of Mahasthangarh or the ancient Pundranagar which is frequently mentioned in the epigraphic records of the Mauryas, the Guptas, the Palas and the Senas. The grand fort of Mahasthan had, therefore, occupied a significant position in the history of East Pakistan. In 1960, the Department of Archaeology first started systematic excavation of the mound. The excavations led to the identification of ten cultural layers with two major building periods dating back to the 4th century B.C. Specimens of northern black polished ware of the 4th to the 2nd centuries B.C., stone images with inscriptions and a copper coin of the Mughal Emperor Shah Alam were found.

In another area, called Mankalir Dhap, the ground plan of a pre-Mughal Mosque was unearthed. There are indications of five doorways on eastern side which balanced the five 'mehrabs' in the opposite 'qibla' wall among which three have so far been brought to light. The facade of the Mosque was embellished with ornamental bricks.

It is expected that the excavations at Mahasthan will provide a complete chronology of the different periods represented at the mound and help archaeologists to reconstruct the ancient history of East Pakistan.

EARLY ISLAMIC PERIOD

Banbhore

Banbhore, an early Islamic site, is situated on the north bank of the Gharo Creek, near the Karachi-Hyderabad highway, about 40 miles east of Karachi. It conceals the remains of a considerable ancient settlement divided into two parts: the fortified citadel area of the mound itself measuring about 2,000 by 1,000 feet; and the lower unwalled city round the lake at the foot of the mound, extending far outside, which includes an industrial area and also an ancient graveyard. It is well situated and seems to have been a port of some importance, once connected with the interior of the country by a branch of the Indus. Its identification with Debal, the famous Hindu port which was stormed by the young Arab general, Mohammad bin Qasim, in 712 A.C. has been suggested.

The site had long been known to archaeologists and was briefly examined by Henry Cousens, N. G. Majumdar, and lastly by Mr. Leslie Alcock who undertook useful preliminary excavations here in 1951 on behalf of the Archaeological Department.

The substantive excavations carried out by the Department of Archaeology since 1958 have revealed the plan of a well-fortified

harbour town, with some details of art and architecture and a wealth of material objects of early-Islamic date. Deep digging at half a dozen points has provided an almost complete cross-section of the mound from top to bottom, revealing the remains of three distinct periods: the Scytho-Parthian, Hindu-Buddhist, and Islamic, datable from the first century B.C. to the 13th century A.C.

On the citadel, though there is no cultural break during the long period of occupation from the 8th to the 13th centuries A.C., four distinct phases, roughly corresponding with four building periods of the defence wall, are clearly traceable. The earliest phase is assignable, on the basis of ceramic and other evidence, to the Umayyad period to which the imposing defence-system of the citadel owes its origin. The second phase, corresponding with the first major repairs of the defence wall, is assigned to the Abbasid period, covering the 9th to the 10th centuries A.C. The third phase which continued to the beginning of the 13th century A.C. corresponds with the rebuilding of the defence wall of the citadel on a slightly reduced scale. This period is distinguished by the introduction of sgraffito glazed wares which almost totally replaced other types of pottery. The major part of the excavated remains belong to this period.

The city was well planned with a network of streets and narrow lanes between blocks of houses, mostly of mud-bricks. Some of these narrow lanes were found to communicate with the outside, piercing through the defence wall which by now must have lost much of its original purpose.

Of the Islamic buildings uncovered, the most remarkable is a palatial stone building of semi-circular shape which was provided with lime-plastered floors, a fine stepped entrance and a large circular well inside and a few soak-pits outside.

A significant discovery was the great mosque at the centre of the citadel. From inside the mosque thirteen Kufic inscriptions carved on dressed stone slabs, have so far been found. Two of them dated 109 A.H. (A.C. 727) and 294 A.H. (A.C. 907) make it the earliest yet known mosque of the sub-continent. The structure of the mosque has many interesting and revealing features.

The other interesting building uncovered is a Siva temple of the pre-Muslim period. From the water-logged deeper levels of the citadel at a depth of about 25 to 30 feet from the surface cultural material of Scytho-Parthian date has also been recovered. It consists of finely polished red burnished pottery with bright-red and dark-brown smooth surfaces.

Of the minor objects from the excavations, the coins are the most important. They include a few thousand copper coins and about fifty silver coins, almost entirely of the Islamic period, and one gold coin of the ninth Abbasid caliph, Wasiq Billah (A.C. 842-7). They have yielded significant information regarding the chronology of the site and corroborate the evidence of the inscriptions. Two of the dated silver coins belong to Caliph Hisham bin Abdul Malik,

another to Al-Mamun, while some copper coins belong to Hisham bin Amr, the governor of the second Abbasid caliph, Al-Mansur, and to other caliphs and their governors and local rulers. There are also three silver coins of the Sassanian kings.

Glass objects, finely carved ivory objects, copper finger-rings, bangles, antimony rods, and small bells, iron arrowheads, knife and sword blades, hilts, nails of various sizes, shell bangles and beads, terracotta animal figurines, beads, and toys, semi-precious stone beads of agate, carnelian, crystal, onyx, lapis-lazuli, and other stone objects are among other finds.

Banbhore appears to have come to an end by the middle of the thirteenth century, partly due to the shifting of the Indus river and partly to a violent disturbance which is evidenced everywhere by damaged buildings, fallen materials, ashes, and skeletons associated with arrow-heads and sword blades. This final destruction of the city is attributed to the recorded invasion of Jalaluddin Khawrizm Shah.

EXPLORATIONS

Extensive explorations in the neighbourhood of Karachi, upper Sind, Las Bela, Makran, Southern and Northern Baluchistan, Bahawalpur, Swat and the Punjab, in West Pakistan, and in the neighbourhood of Comilla in East Pakistan have been carried out. The sites included the following.

West Pakistan

In Karachi district explorations have been carried out at Mango Pir, Lyari River and Damloti sites. Micro-blades, scrapers and chipped cores have been found indicating prehistoric settlements in these places.

Potsherds and other objects of Harappan type have been explored at Deh Mari Sabra, Judiero-jo-Daro, and at several other places in lower Sind.

Geographically Judier-jo-Daro occupies an important position along the highway long used to connect the Lower Indus basin with Baluchistan and Afghanistan. The presence of a number of ancient sites along the same line suggests a corresponding importance of the place in ancient times.

Surface-finds from sites in the Loralai, Zhob, and Quetta-Pishin districts of northern Baluchistan and the Mastung district of Kalat State have been collected. At Sorani Ghundai two large storage jars containing decayed grain were recovered. Inside one of the jars was an earthen pot which was probably used as a grain-measure. The bold relief-decoration on one of the jars representing strings of date-stone and twisted rope suggests a late date, perhaps Sassanian, for this type of pottery.

Since 1949, a number of foreign archaeological missions have carried out archaeological reconnaissance in Baluchistan in collaboration with the Department of Archaeology. Extensive areas have been explored by these joint expeditions and new pre-historic sites

have been discovered and investigated, while the cultural contents of well-known sites discovered earlier have been re-examined and checked. The collected materials and observations made by these expeditions, and more particularly the limited excavations carried out on important sites, have provided a suitable basis for a more systematic study of the chronology of pre-historic Baluchistan. The interrelationships of the complicated varieties of Baluchi village cultures have now been established to some extent in their chronological context by these combined efforts.

A mound lies 600 yards East of Raisi-Ghundai and about 1½ miles south of Manzakai and north of village Khairabad. The pottery finds consists of thick and heavy pieces of large pots having rope and chain motifs in relief, flat dishes, small bowls, well-fired thin pieces of ribbed ware and small vases of coarse fabric.

The pottery pieces of this site do not seem to have the feel of pre-historic pottery and therefore, may indicate an occupation which existed in historical times.

Significant evidences of early Muslim settlements, in certain cases superimposed on Hindu and Buddhist sites, have been found at Alor, Qasim Kirio, Bhiro Bham, Bagar, Thatta and Mansura. It is interesting that these sites had very close affinities with Banbhore.

East Pakistan

About 2½ miles east of Comilla town, on the other side of the Gumti river, are traces of ancient remains in Italla village, now covered by a low flat mound locally known as Mohanter Mura (the mound of the high priest). At present there is nothing on the surface of the mound except a comparatively late Hindu temple with heavy late-Mughal-type architecture on the bank of a water tank. Mohanter Mura appears to conceal remains of the Buddhist period, as indicated by the potsherds. No excavations have yet been carried out.

About half a mile north-east of Mohanter Mura and 3 miles east of Comilla, there are two prominent mounds locally called, Vaishnab Mura, situated on the north side of the village of Kalikapur. An abundance of burnt brickbats and potsherds has been found scattered all over the surface. Traces of a large monastery apparently Buddhists, have also been noticed.

North of Italla village and due west of the Vaishnab Mura mounds there is a small mound called Hill Muri which appears to conceal the remains of a small shrine. The mound is very much damaged now and agricultural plots are encroaching on it from all sides. Between Mohanter Mura and Vaishnab Mura, though there is no prominent high ground, a scatter of ancient potsherds was observed at a number of places, now very much disturbed by the village cultivators, and at one place inside a village a freshly dug pit for earth has exposed an ancient brick wall. There are other visible traces of ancient Buddhist settlements here and there, but too fragmentary or dislocated to record.

MUSEUMS

Museum service in Pakistan has seen steady progress in the last few years. New museums have been set up while existing ones have been renovated and expanded for housing further collections.

Not all museums are government maintained. There are a few which are being maintained by educational institutions. Government is, however, responsible for the establishment and maintenance of most of them. Some of the important museums are described below:

West Pakistan

The *National Museum* in Karachi (founded 1910), is a most presentative museum, having in its collections materials from all over Pakistan. It includes ancient art from Moenjodaro and Harappa, Gandhara specimens and a large collection of Muslim art.

The *Central Museum*, Lahore (1864) is the oldest. Its very rich and varied collections comprise Buddhist, Brahmanical and Jain sculptures, inscribed stones, stone implements, coins; and Nepalese and Tibetan objects. Mughal and Sikh collections are outstanding. Government college, Lahore, has a *Zoological Museum*. The *Old Fort* at Lahore contains rich collections of Mughal and Sikh arms, paintings, manuscripts, etc. in two separate galleries. There is a *Commercial and Industrial Museum* at Lahore.

Collections of *Peshawar Museum* (1907) are devoted almost entirely to the sculptures of the Gandhara school of art and comprise an unrivalled collection of images of Buddha, Bodhisattvas, and other relics, illustrating the life of Buddha and *Jataka* stories, and minor arts recovered in the Peshawar region. The *Islamia College Museum* of Peshawar contains mounted mammals, birds, fish, skeletons of mammals and German and French anatomical models.

Taxila Archaeological Museum (1928) contains antiquities of every description recovered after excavation of the adjacent sites and monastic areas. They are exceptionally rich and varied and cover a period of more than a thousand years from the 6th century B.C. to the 5th century A.C. illustrating the cosmopolitan life that prevailed during most of the period in the north-west of Pakistan. The collection is the only one of its kind in the sub-continent containing a representative display of the utensils, implements and arms of people in historic times. From the monastic area have come sculptures in stone, stucco, relief, pottery, relics, reliquaries, inscriptions and coins.

Archaeological Museums at Harappa and Moenjodaro contain the remains of that outstanding Indus civilization which flourished primarily at the two capital cities. *Banbhore Archaeological Museum* contains relics of the earliest Muslim conquerors recovered from Banbhore city.

Other important museums in West Pakistan are the *Archaeological Museums at Umarkot and Shaidu Sharif* (Swat) and the *Agricultural Museum*

at Lyallpur. The Lyallpur museum contains a rich collection of food-grains, cotton and other fabrics, drugs, spices and oil seeds, pulses, fruits and other economic products of the Punjab region.

The *Army Museum* at Rawalpindi is marked by its remarkable collection of antiquities belonging to the period of the War of Independence (1857-58). The antiquities include, among other things, arms used by 'Mujahideen' and three flags hoisted by them against British rule.

East Pakistan

There are seven museums in East Pakistan. The *Dacca Museum* of antiquities (founded 1913) contains a representative set of East Pakistan sculptures in stone, metal and wood, Buddhist and Brahmanical, above 3,000 gold, silver and copper coins and other objects.

The *Balda Museum*, Dacca (built in 1927) is mainly botanical.

Each excavated site, *Mainamati*, *Mahasthan* and *Paharpur*, has its own archaeological museum set up by the Department of Archaeology.

The Varendra Research Society, Rajshahi was set up by a local *zamindar* with the object of collecting materials for writing the history of Bengal. It contains archaeological relics, stone inscriptions, some thousand of gold, silver and copper coins of the ancient Mauryans, Palas and the Pathan Sultans. The attached library has a collection of 3,000 old Sanskrit, Pali and Bengali manuscripts; some of them are written on palm leaf. The museum was taken over by the Rajshahi University in October, 1964.

The *Ethnological Museum*, Chittagong, is being shortly opened to the public. The museum will be the first of its kind in Pakistan and will contain ethnological material from East and West Pakistan, including traditional costumes, dresses, house-hold articles and other material of every day use.

28. TOURISM

Tourism in Pakistan is a developing industry. About 77,500 tourists visited Pakistan and spent over a hundred million rupees during 1966*. Considering the great wealth of historical and pleasure sites in the country, the potential for the growth of the tourist trade is very high. Estimates for the next twenty years show a rising scale of earning.

DEVELOPMENT

Master Plan

In June, 1965 the Department of Tourism produced a detailed master plan for the development of tourism in the country in the next twenty years. The Plan has made detailed recommendations for the development of tourist sites, transport, accommodation, organisation and publicity at a total cost of Rs 2,922 million. According to the Plan, every single rupee invested in the tourist industry in Pakistan will add Rs 1.8 million to the growth of national product; every rupee worth of foreign exchange invested would earn three in foreign exchange during 1965 to 1970 alone; in 1970 a properly developed and managed tourist industry would bring in Rs 130 million in foreign exchange, and in 1985 Rs 560 million. The Plan, after examination by a special Secretaries' Committee, was accepted by the Government.

Major development schemes envisaged in the Third Plan period include establishment of a skiing-cum-summer resort at Malam Jaba in Swat; establishment of game sanctuary and national parks in Chittagong Hill Tracts and Sunderbans; setting up of hotel training institutes at Karachi and Dacca and organisation of cultural activities. In addition, publicity activities are to be stepped up which would include opening of promotional offices abroad, production of tourist literature, including posters, folders, brochures, maps,

*The figure does not include 1,339 Indian nationals and 5,861 excursionists who also visited Pakistan during the same period.

a travel manual, production of documentary and TV films and conducting a sustained promotional campaign in the national and international press for promotion of domestic and international tourism.

Development Corporation

In addition to the Department of Tourism which would continue to perform regulatory, promotional, controlling, supervisory and sponsoring functions related to the Tourist Industry and its infrastructure, the Master Plan has suggested the setting up of a Tourist Development Corporation which would undertake the commercial ventures visualised in the Plan, such as construction of hotels, motels, rest houses and other ancillary accommodation, provision of river and road transport, establishment of souvenir shops, recreational centres and game sanctuaries and setting up of a Travel Agency. The project envisages an expenditure of Rs 47.5 million. Draft legislation for creation of the Corporation has been submitted to Government for presentation in the National Assembly.

ACTIVITIES DURING 1965-66

Malam Jaba

Completion of the 21-mile road from Tilgram to Malam Jaba is being expedited. This mountain spot is to be developed as both a winter and summer resort. A loan agreement for it is under negotiation with the Austrian Government.

Banbhore Link Road

A link road from the West Pakistan highway to Banbhore excavations has been completed. It will facilitate travel to this important archaeological site near Karachi.

Son-et-Lumiere Project

Negotiations have been finalised for the installation of technical equipment for the Son-et-Lumiere Project at Lahore Fort. A revised script prepared by Mr. Robert Houdin, the inventor of the technique, has been approved after careful scrutiny. Award of the contract will be finalised after sorting out some administrative details.

Life Saving Squad

A Life Saving Squad is being deployed at Hawkes Bay, Karachi with a view to avoiding drowning accidents at its beaches. A watch tower has already been constructed there. A squad of six rescue swimmers is being raised for the bathing beaches. Arrangements are also in hand for setting up a Medical Aid Centre manned by a qualified Medical Practitioner.

Golf Courses

In pursuance of the recommendations made by a British golf architect, who visited Pakistan by special invitation, the work of remodelling of a number of golf courses including that at Abbottabad was taken in hand, and is progressing.

Accommodation

In order to meet the growing demand for suitable accommodation in major cities and tourist resorts in Pakistan, the Department

of Tourism took steps to encourage the construction of new hotels, motels and rest houses.

However, to ensure suitable standards draft legislation for the control of construction and running of hotels is also under consideration.

A feasibility study was conducted for construction for a chain of tourist hotels and motels along the highways as well as in commercial centres and sites of historical and touristic interest in both wings of the country. Two hotels in Swat, two in Dacca and one in Chittagong were commissioned during 1965-66. In addition, construction work of several western style hotels in Dacca, Karachi, Lahore and Rawalpindi was in progress.

Steps were taken to renovate and furnish rest houses at Gilgit, Skardu and Lalazar in West Pakistan, and Kaptai and Moulvi Bazar in East Pakistan. Assistance is to be given to the Department of Archaeology for renovating some of their rest houses, particularly those at Moenjodaro, Taxila and Mainamati.

Transport

Luxury coach and microbuses, fully air-conditioned and fitted with public address systems, air-conditioned wagons and jeeps are now in use for conducted sight-seeing tours in Karachi and its suburbs. The same will soon be provided in Lahore and Dacca.

Publicity

The Department of Tourism published a variety of tourist literature. The 1965-66 publications included—

(*a*) tourist guide and a tourist map;

(*b*) brochures covering Dacca, Chittagong, Peshawar, Quetta and Ziarat, Rawalpindi and Islamabad and Travel Information.

Preliminary work on a comprehensive travel manual of Pakistan was completed. The publication is being printed soon. Spade work in connection with several other publications was completed. A sufficient quantity of tourist literature was supplied through Export Promotion Bureau, and Ethiopian Air lines for distribution abroad.

The Department brought out two posters reproducing IUOTO's 'International Tourist Year' emblem with Bengali and Urdu renderings of the slogan 'Tourism, Passport to Peace'. The posters were distributed to all hotels, travel agents, airline offices, universities, educational institutions and other organisations connected with tourist trade for display.

Sustained advertisement campaigns are run to promote domestic tourism and encourage travel between the two wings. Advertisements with illustrated background material on tourist attractions in Pakistan are also issued to foreign newspapers. In addition, illustrated articles on Pakistan are sent to foreign newspapers and magazines.

Two coloured documentary films on Mughal monuments and gardens of Lahore and the historical sites of Dacca and the archaeo-

logical site of Mainamati were produced during 1965-66. Production of more such films is being planned.

The Department sponsored a seventy-two man contingent of Khattak and Mahsud dancers drawn from the Frontier Constabulary for participation in the Royal Tournament, London and the Edinburgh Tattoo. Illustrated articles and specially prepared write-ups on the history of the Pathan tribes, their customs and traditions, were released to the British press on the occasion. A publication was also produced by the Department for distribution at the Royal Tournament and the Edinburgh Tattoo.

The Northern Area Polo Tournament was organised in Gilgit in April, 1966.

Facilities

In order to facilitate movement of foreigners as well as Pakistanis to special areas in West Pakistan, the States and Frontier Regions Division at the instance of the Department of Tourism, have relaxed restrictions in respect of visits of foreigners in the following areas:

(*a*) Peshawar-Torkhan road in Khyber Agency;

(*b*) States of Swat and Chitral;

(*c*) the road from Chakdara to Lowari Pass in Dir State and areas lying to the East of the road;

(*d*) the Malakand protected areas in Malakand Agency, except the areas known as Kot and Agra and the power station at Dargai, Jabban and Canal Head Works.

Restrictions have also been relaxed on the visit of foreign tourists to the 'open zone' in Gilgit and Baltistan Agencies. Restrictions on photography in the above areas have been removed. Pakistani tourists have been allowed to visit the Khyber Pass without obtaining permit from the political authorities.

Registration of Foreigners' Rules, 1966 have been promulgated with effect from December 6, 1966. The new rules, which replace the Registration of Foreigners' Rules, 1939 provide a number of relaxations for the entry into, movement within and exit from Pakistan of foreign tourists. The salient features of the new rules include:

(*a*) doing away with police registration for all foreign tourists;

(*b*) partial acceptance of the IUOTO's definition of the term 'Tourist' as approved by UN conference on Travel and Tourism, so as to cover all foreign arrivals whose stay in Pakistan exceeds 24 hours but does not exceed three months and is not for the purpose of gainful employment within the country (IUOTO accepts this definition for a period not exceeding six months);

(*c*) doing away with the requirement of police registration for district to district movement as well as inter wing movement; and

(*d*) abolition of exit permits for foreign tourists.

The Pakistan Eastern Railways have introduced 2nd Class 'travel

as you like' tickets valid for one month for visitors from West Pakistan as well as from abroad.

Tourist Guidance

An elite cadre of Tourist Guides for conducting sight-seeing tours in important cities, historical and archaeological sites and tourist resorts in the country was worked out. The first Tourist Guide Training Course in which 27 trainees were drawn from the public and ten serving officials of the Department participated, was held during December, 1966. Majority of the guides were to be employed by the Department on a retainer basis at Karachi, Moenjodaro, Rawalpindi, Lahore, Peshawar, Abbottabad, Gilgit, Dacca, Chittagong, Cox's Bazar, Kaptai, Khulna and Comilla.

A Tourist Information Centre has been established at the International Arrival Lounge at Karachi Airport. A Reception-cum-Hospitality Team has been deployed at the Centre with a view to offering assistance to incoming foreign tourists in clearance at the Immigration and Customs Counters as well as for provision of detailed information on travel in Pakistan. Tourist information centres are also functioning at the airport at Lahore, Dacca and Rawalpindi. A tourist information centre has also been set up at Moenjodaro.

Familiarisation Trips and Training

Teams of officials engaged in reception and public relations duties were sent on familiarisation tours of East and West Pakistan with a view to acquiring first hand acquaintance with the places of historical, archaeological and touristic interest. In-service Training Courses were organised for the Reception Staff.

A batch of officials of the Department have successfully completed a correspondence course on Tourism organised by IUOTO last year.

International Conference

The Director-General of Tourism represented Pakistan at meetings of the Technical Commission on Facilitation and Development of the International Union of Official Travel Organisations, as well as the South Asian Travel Commission meeting, held in Moscow in May, 1966. Pakistan, having been elected for the first time in 1964 a member of the Exectutive Committee of the IUOTO, was represented through the Director-General Tourism in the 78th Executive Committee meeting held in Athens in June, 1966.

A meeting of the RCD Regional Planning Council was held in Islamabad in February, 1966. A Tourist Information Centre was set up at the venue of the meeting for the convenience of the delegates and arrangements for sight-seeing tours of delegates were also made. The 3rd, 4th and 5th meetings of the RCD Committee on Tourism were held in Teheran in November, 1965, in Dacca in April, 1966, and in Islamabad in October, 1966, respectively. A meeting of the ad-hoc sub-committee of Publicity Experts of the National Tourist Organisations of the RCD countries was held at Karachi in

January, 1966 to finalise arrangements for publication of a common brochure-cum-road map for the RCD Region.

The Director of Culture, UNESCO, visited Karachi to gauge the prospects of technical assistance from UNESCO for the development of a tourist infrastructure around selected historical sites and for preservation and renovation of historical monuments and archaeological sites. A team of experts was subsequently sent to make an on-the-spot study with a view to assessing the quantum of assistance required.

At the invitation of the Government of Pakistan, the President of the Afghan National Tourist Organisation visited Pakistan for a period of eight days. Mr. Tarzi, who is also Chairman of the South Asian Travel Commission, held useful discussions with Director General Tourism on matters of mutual interest, especially development of Tourism in the SATC region in general and between Afghanistan and Pakistan in particular.

PRINCIPAL SITES

Pakistan, as a vacation land, has many facets. Tourist attractions include archaeological sites, monuments, hill resorts, beaches, historic and modern cities. To a lover of sports and out-door activities Pakistan offers opportunities for big game hunting, angling, deep-sea fishing, mountaineering and hiking. The following are some of the important places of tourist attraction.

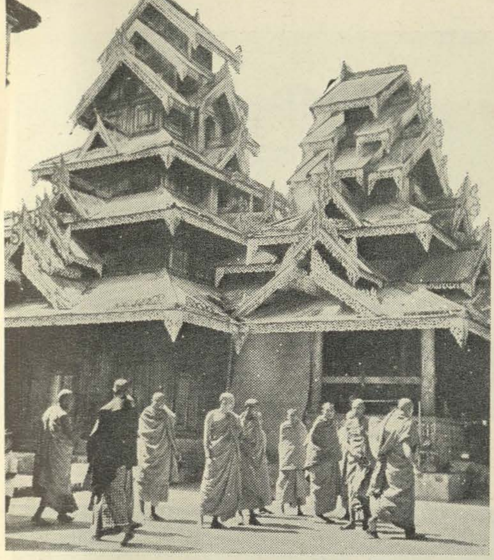
EAST PAKISTAN

Dacca

Dacca, the capital of the eastern Province of Pakistan, with a population of over half a million and an area of 28 square miles, was founded in 1608 as the seat of the Imperial Mughal Viceroys of Bengal. It was once world-famous for its silk and cotton fabrics, particularly the fine Dacca muslin. Some of the outstanding historical monuments are Lal-Bagh Fort, Bibi Pari's Tomb, Bara Katra, Hussaini Dalan, Star Mosque, Satgumbad (Seven Domes) Mosque and Dhakeswari Temple. Among the modern buildings, Curzon Hall, High Court, Government House, Agricultural Institute, Central Secretariat, Public Library and Government Arts Institute are outstanding. The University Museum contains some remarkable exhibits of sculpture, painting and ancient coins. The Museum in Balda Garden nurses many rare varieties of plants and flowers, and also contains very interesting specimens of Mughal arms, jewellery and Dacca muslin.

Chittagong

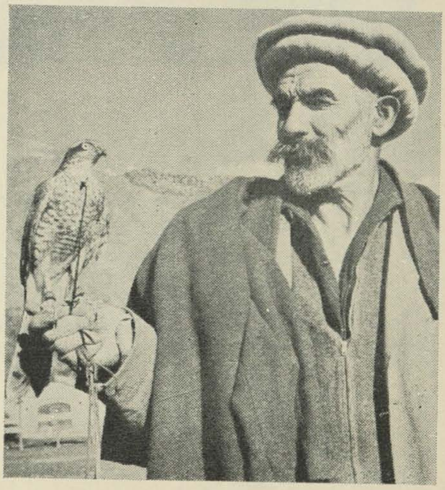
Chittagong, the main sea port of the eastern wing, situated on the bank of the river Karnaphuli, was developed after independence, and now handles two million tons of cargo annually. With an area of 58 square miles, Chittagong is a picturesque town built on hilly terrain and surrounded by green hills, rivers and luxuriant tropical vegetation. Juma Mosque and the Shrine of Sultan Bayazid Bustami are the two important monuments of Chittagong. It is accessible by rail, road and air.



Lamar Para Buddhist Temple at Ramu near Cox's Bazar, East Pakistan.



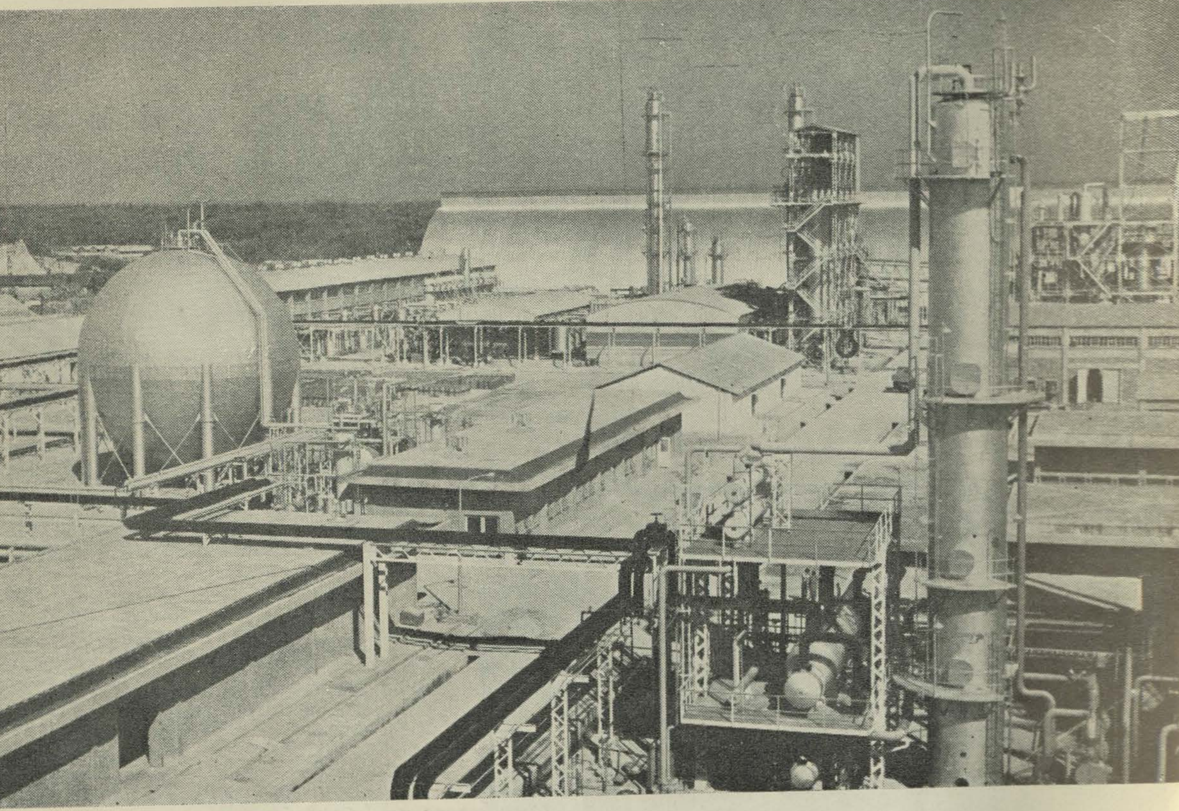
A dancer in Manipuri costume.



Falconry is a past-time for the people of Chitral, West Pakistan. A village elderman with his pet hawk.

New Rangamati Town, the Headquarters of Chittagong Hill Tracts, East Pakistan.



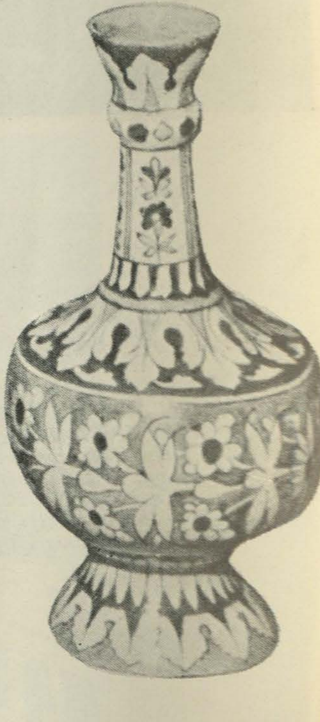


Natural Gas Fertiliser Factory at Fenchuganj, East Pakistan.

Silk-weaving is a cottage industry in Cox's Bazar, East Pakistan. Here a girl is seen weaving in the quiet of her home.



Hala in Sind (West Pakistan) is known for pottery—the specimen here shows exquisite floral designs on pottery.



Kaptai

35 miles upstream from Chittagong, the once sleepy little village of Kaptai now hums with activity because of the recently completed Karnaphuli hydro-electric project. The turbulent Karnaphuli river, emerging from the Lushai ranges, has been harnessed by the Kaptai Dam to form the largest man-made lake (265 square miles) in the sub-continent. It provides excellent cruising by motor launches and speed-boats. For angling and fishing, the lake as well as the upper reaches of the Karnaphuli, Kassalong and Maini rivers, are ideal. The lake region is also a great attraction for game lovers. A boat trip to the various forest islands and lake channels offers prospects of good hunting. Game ranges from tigers to jungle fowl.

Rangamati

Rangamati is a picturesque town in the Chittagong Hill Tracts district. It is situated 45 miles from Chittagong, on the river Karnaphuli. It is accessible by river as well as by road. The Hill Tracts possess rare scenic beauty. The tribal-folk live in bamboo huts built on raised bamboo platforms in thick forests where wild animals abound. In winter, wild elephants are trapped in the forests. These operations, known as "Kheda", can be seen by advance arrangement with the Tourist Bureau.

Cox's Bazar

Cox's Bazar, with its 75 miles long sea beach, is an attractive resort. It lies at a distance of 94 miles from Chittagong and is accessible by road, air and river. It has many pagodas and Buddhist temples. The Mogh tribesmen living in Cox's Bazar manufacture a local variety of cigars and colourful cloth, as a cottage industry. Their unique customs and colourful costumes attract tourists. Accommodation and food are available in the Rest Houses and Motels built for the use of tourists. A comfortable hotel has also been commissioned recently.

Sunderbans

Situated in the Khulna district in the south-west, the Sunderbans are dense, ever-green forests surrounded by a net-work of rivers. One finds here tides flowing in two directions in the same creek and, if one is lucky a tiger swimming across a river or a huge crocodile basking in the sun. The Sunderbans attract game-lovers. Royal Bengal tiger, pythons, crocodiles and spotted deer abound. The forests are accessible by river craft from Chalna and Khulna which are connected with Dacca by PIA helicopter service. Khulna can also be reached from Dacca by rail and steamer.

Sylhet

Situated in the eastern-most part, amidst picturesque surroundings, Sylhet is the main tea-growing area in the eastern Province of Pakistan. There are 110 tea Estates extending over an area of 78,000 acres. Oranges and pine-apple grow in abundance. The surrounding forests offer good opportunities for big game-hunting and duck-shooting.

Mahasthan Garh

Mahasthan Garh, 8 miles north of Bogra railway station, is the site of the earliest known capital of Bengal. Relics discovered during excavations by the Archaeological Department belong to different periods — Buddhist, Hindu and Muslim.

Mainamati

Most of the major towns in the eastern Province date back to ancient times and almost all of them retain interesting archaeological and historical relics of the old dynasties — Hindu, Buddhist, Pathan or Mughal. Of particular interest are the ruins at Mainamati, five miles west of Comilla town, where an extensive centre of Buddhist culture was recently unearthed, complete with shrines, stupas, images, coins, pottery and utensils.

Paharpur

Situated three miles west of Jamalganj railway station in Rajshahi district is the famous site of Paharpur, where Lord Buddha once rested and where is built the greatest Buddhist monastery south of the Himalayas. The monastery is distinguished by its unique cruciform style of architecture. The terra-cotta plaques of musicians, snake-charmers, and animals, etc. decorating the outside wall of the temple, depict the life of villagers a thousand years ago.

WEST PAKISTAN
Karachi

Karachi, the main centre of business, commerce and industry, is the largest city of Pakistan with a population of over two million. Karachi is a natural harbour and is one of the finest in the sub-continent. Its waters offer excellent fishing. Places of interest are Airport, Bagh-e-Jinnah (Frere Hall), Zoological Gardens, National Museum, Mausoleum of Quaid-e-Azam Mahomed Ali Jinnah, Manora Island, Sandspit, Hawkes Bay, Paradise Point and Clifton.

Banbhore

About 40 miles north-east of Karachi is Banbhore, an archaeological site under excavation. Some scholars identify this place with Debal which was stormed by the Arab General, Mohammad bin al-Qasim in 711-12 A.C.

Thatta

Thatta, situated about 63 miles north of Karachi, remained the capital of the former Sind Province for about three centuries under the Mughals (1475-1737). Makli Hill, two miles north-west of here, is a silent city of one million graves scattered over an area of six square miles. Some of these tombs and graves offer excellent specimens of architecture, stone-carving and coloured tiling. The surroundings of Thatta abound in game birds, such as partridge, quail, duck and snipe. Eleven miles north of Thatta, by the side of the national highway lies the Kalri lake which offers facilities for angling shooting, and speed-boating.

Hyderabad

Situated 126 miles north-east of Karachi, Hyderabad was the capital of the Sind Province during the reign of the Mirs (18th century) and has a number of historical ruins and monuments. The

Ghulam Mohammad Barrage across the river Indus is a feat of modern engineering which helps make the surrounding land green and fertile through a net-work of canals.

Sukkur

212 miles North-East of Hyderabad and situated on the right bank of the river Indus, Sukkur is famous for the Sukkur Barrage across the Indus which is the largest irrigation project of its kind in the world. Seven canals drawing 46,617 cusecs of water and comprising 16,474 mile long channels flow from both banks, irrigating seven million acres. One of the canals is wider and longer than both the Suez and the Panama Canals.

Moenjo-daro

Seven miles east of Moenjodaro Railway Station, 412 miles from Karachi and 80 miles south-west of Sukkur on the Dadu loop Railway line, Moenjodaro is the site of the world famous 5,000-year old Indus Valley Civilization. The Great Bath, the Great Granary, the unique drainage system and the Museum containing relics provide glimpses into one of the earliest of human civilizations. Another similar site of this civilization is at Harrapa near Sahiwal.

Quetta and Ziarat

Situated at 4,590 feet above sea level, Quetta is one of the best known hill stations. Winter in Quetta is severe but the summer is delightful. The Quetta Valley abounds in fruit orchards. There is a comfortable hotel, a club and a fine golf course.

62 miles from Quetta is Ziarat, a pleasant hill resort about 8,000 feet above sea level.

Lahore

811 miles to the north-east of Karachi, just over two hours flight by Pakistan's domestic airline PIA, is Lahore, "the city of gardens", and the capital of the western Province. It is an ancient town, rich in historical monuments, including some of the finest specimens of Indo-Muslim architecture — the Royal Mosque of Emperor Aurangzeb, the Shalimar Gardens of Emperor Shah Jahan, Emperor Jehangir's Mausoleum and the Royal Fort of Akbar, the great Mughal, with its fabulous Hall of Mirrors. The people of Lahore look upon their city as the cultural capital of Pakistan because of its numerous colleges and places of learning. The climate is dry; summers are hot and winters are sunny and cold. It has one of the most lovely parks in Asia, the Jinnah Gardens, and holds the National Horse Show — an annual event in spring, a pageant of equestrian sports, folk dances music, parades and tattoos.

Rawalpindi

171 miles to the north-west of Lahore is Rawalpindi, the interim capital of Pakistan. It is fast developing into a large modern town and the civil and military authorities have given it excellent roads bordered with ornamental trees, many play-grounds, a pleasant club, a number of good hotels and restaurants and an extensive park known as the

Ayub National Park. Situated at the foot of several mountain ranges, Rawalpindi is the last staging post leading to the numerous holiday spots and hill resorts of the western Province, such as Murree, Nathiagali, Ayubia, Abbottabad, Swat, and Kaghan. The climate is similar to Lahore, a little colder in winter and less warm in summer.

Islamabad The new capital of Pakistan is under construction, 7 miles north-east of Rawalpindi, at Islamabad. Climatically the place is very pleasant. The capital which will comprise an area of 80 to 100 square miles, is already the headquarters of certain major ministries and departments. Large government buildings, attractive parks, boulevards, shopping centres and an industrial zone are under construction.

Taxila 189 miles from Lahore and 20 miles from Rawalpindi on the Peshawar route, Taxila is the place where West met East many a time in the past, and where Asoka built the greatest Buddhist University of the sub-continent well before the birth of Christ. Its archaeological wealth dating back to the 5th century B.C. is world famous.

Murree and Galis About 40 miles from Rawalpindi, situated at an altitude of 7,527 feet above sea-level, Murree is one of the most popular summer resorts in Pakistan. Developed long ago, this hill station has good hotels, skating rinks and fir-scented walks shaded by giant pine trees.

The Galis are small hill stations, north-west of Murree and there is a motorable road running through the unending charm of mountain ranges. Ayubia, which is being developed into a first class summer resort comprises Khairagali, Chaglagali and Ghora Dhakka-Khanspur and is one hour drive from Murree. Its thickly wooded hills, bracing climate, cool glades and beauty have been a source of great attraction to tourists. Other nearby popular hill resorts are Nathiagali and Abbottabad.

Kaghan Valley Kaghan is a picturesque valley, 95 miles long, rising upto a height of 13,589 feet. Kaghan is becoming increasingly popular for its varied landscape, its bracing climate and excellent trout fishing.

Swat Valley Approached from the rail head of Durgai as well as by road through the Malakand Pass, Swat is a beautiful valley of magnificent scenic beauty. Its lush-green, fertile valleys, towering snow-capped mountains, meandering river and rushing torrents, icy-cold lakes, fruit-laden orchards and flower-covered slopes are some of nature's gifts to this ancient land.

Added to these are the numerous landmarks created by man himself through the process of history over a number of centuries. There is Udayana — the garden of the ancient Hindu epic. This is a land of enthralling beauty where Alexander the Great fought

and won some of his major battles before crossing the plains of Northern Pakistan. This is a centre of Buddhism where once flourished fourteen hundred monasteries.

At Malam Jabba, 26 miles away from Saidu Sharif a skiing-cum-summer resort is being developed with all modern facilities.

Peshawar

275 miles north-west of Lahore and 1,081 miles from Karachi, lies Peshawar which is one of the most famous cross-roads of Central Asia. Its bazars, buildings and people present a picture of a wonderful world and the local handicrafts are many and exquisite. The Museum has a very fine collection of Romano-Buddhist sculpture and other antiquities. Nearby is the Kohat Pass where village gun factories can be seen.

Khyber Pass

The historic Khyber Pass begins 11 miles from Peshawar and stretches upto the Pakistan-Afghan border at Torkham (35 miles from Peshawar). It is famous in history as a most important gateway from Central Asia into the plains of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent. Persian, Greek, Arab, Turk, Mughal and Durrani conquerors have forced their way through its defiles.

Starting from the foot-hills of the Suleman Range it gradually rises to an elevation of 3,500 feet above sea-level. A railway line, considered to be a marvel of engineering, passes through it and terminates at Landhi Khana, 32 miles from Peshawar. A black-top road runs upto Torkham. The market place of Landhi Kotal (29 miles) is a favourite tourist haunt. The Government transport service runs an excursion bus to Torkham on Sundays which provides a one-day guided tour of the Khyber Pass. Tourists also go by taxi and take the round-trip at their leisure.

Gilgit

Few places compare with the beauty of Gilgit. Here lofty peaks tower above rich valleys and lakes of great scenic beauty. The place is a paradise for hiker, angler, for the art lover, the adventurer, the mountaineer, and the polo enthusiast.

The Himalayan regions comprise high mountains, deep green valleys and vast glaciers. Peace and tranquillity reign over the valleys — a respite from the busy life of towns. There are several hundreds of peaks with an elevation of about 19,000 feet, and 60 of them rise about 22,000 feet, K-2 (28,250 feet) being the highest in the world after Mount Everest.

Gilgit is reached by plane from Rawalpindi. The plane follows the course of the Kunhar river as it winds through the narrow gorge of Kaghan, walled by majestic mountains. Then flying along the upper ranges of the great Himalayas and the mighty Karakorams, one sees sun ringed clouds, immense peaks, and tremendous gorges. The flight also takes one over the lake of Saiful-Maluk, where, according to legend, a fairy took away her mortal love, Prince Saiful-Maluk. The lake has a magic and romantic aspect.

There are two beautiful lakes in Skardu, the Satpara and Kachura, which are surrounded by mountains. Skardu and Gilgit are accessible by air, and rest houses at these places provide transport facilities to tourists.

29. SPORT

Introductory.

Various Sports. Cricket; Hockey; Football; Squash; Lawn Tennis; Table Tennis; Badminton; Basketball; Volleyball; Wrestling; Boxing; Swimming; Aquatic Sports; Athletics; Weight-lifting; Cycling; Kabaddi; Skiing; Mountaineering; Flying; Rifle Shooting; Hunting; Racing.

Women in Sports.

The name of Pakistan became widely known in the sporting world very soon after the country came into existence. The territories had long produced sportsmen of talent, some of them achieving world class, especially in wrestling, cricket, hockey, tennis, badminton, table tennis and athletics.

Sport in Pakistan is now a sufficiently organised activity. Clubs are formed at *mahalla* levels; voluntary associations have come up in the cities and districts and there are federations for each sport operating on a national scale. There are federations, separately for hockey, football, tennis, badminton, and so on. Officials and other high-level personnel associate themselves with such organisations and ensure that they function on democratic lines, and that due encouragement and facilities are provided.

Government gives handsome grant-aids to active sporting bodies and the visits of Pakistani teams to the Olympic Games, the Asian Games, the British Empire and Commonwealth Games as well as tours of other national teams are financed by the government, which also sanctions foreign exchange for meeting the share of earnings of visiting sportsmen. It provides special grants for meeting the expenses of training and coaching of Pakistani sportsmen.

A Sports Control Board has been formed which channels Government aids for sports and generally guides and overseers the activities of sport organisations all over the country. If necessary, it sets up committees to investigate the affairs of sporting bodies and takes remedial measures, if needed. It conducts coaching and training camps for young people in all major games and athletics. Government has drawn up a plan for establishing permanent coaching centres in all the major cities of the country which are meant to cater for every sport, outdoor or indoor. Two such centres are now under construction at Karachi and Dacca. A provincial Sports Control Board also functions at Lahore under the central body. This provincial Board has engaged a number of coaches for different sports, who visit sport centres to advise and help aspiring games players.

Cricket

Cricket has always been a favourite game in Pakistan and still is. Visitors will see it being played everywhere. Apart from school grounds, all open places, and even streets are occupied in evenings by young cricket players. A bat and a ball, and a few bricks for wickets serve the purpose. Sunday matches are a usual feature. Touring teams from abroad draw capacity crowds, of as many as 40 to 50 thousand.

International Matches

Even though Pakistan cricket had a weak beginning, it did very well in the first representative, though unofficial, match with the visiting West Indies team in 1948. Pakistan also played host to Ceylon with great success. The first recognised trial of strength came in 1951 when the visiting MCC played an unofficial Test in Karachi. Pakistan won the test and as a result was admitted to the then Imperial Cricket Conference, now known as the International Cricket Conference, which meant the conferment of official Test status on this country.

Within months of getting ICC membership, Pakistan recorded her first win in Test cricket. This compares with India's achievement which, although given Test status in 1932, recorded its first Test triumph against England in 1951. Pakistan's first official tour was to India in 1951-52 and after being beaten in the first test, in Delhi, by an innings turned the tables in the next Test at Lucknow. It was her maiden test win. In 1954, during their tour of England, the Pakistani team beat Worcestershire in the opening match of the tour. They went on to draw the series by registering a thrilling win in the Oval Test. These were unprecedented events for a country making its cricketing debut in England.

After Pakistan had played host to India in 1954-55 in a drawn series, she faced New Zealand in the same year at home in a three-match series. Of the latter, Pakistan won two, the third ending in a draw. In 1956 Pakistan faced Australia in the only Test played, and surprised the cricketing world by coming out of it triumphant.

In the 1957-58 tour of the West Indies, although Pakistan lost the series 3-1, she had some creditable performances to her credit. The longest test innings in cricket history, by Hanif Mohammad came during the tour and then, by winning the last Test, Pakistan created another record, namely that of having scored victories over all cricket-playing countries they had met. When Pakistan played host to the West Indies in the early part of 1959, the home team squared the account with a 2-1 margin. Later in the year, the visiting Australian team won the first two Tests at Dacca and Lahore, and the third in Karachi ended in a draw. Pakistan played these two series without its first captain, Kardar, who had retired. Pakistan also did not do well against England in the three match series in 1961-62. England won the first Test, and the other two ended without a decision. The only feature of the series was Hanif Mohammad's centuries in each innings of Dacca Test.

The lean period continued for some time. The Board of Control for Cricket in Pakistan undertook some re-organisation. A Commonwealth cricket team was invited in 1964; one Test was played against Australia which ended in a draw. The same year a team was sent to Australia for a couple of matches, with Hanif as captain where the Australian critics were inspired by Pakistan's performance. The team went on a full-fledged tour of New Zealand and that series ended in a draw. A couple of months later, New Zealand visited Pakistan and lost.

In 1966 a visiting Ceylonese team was beaten in all three unofficial Tests played. In 1967 came the MCC Under-25 team and were met by the Under-25's of Pakistan. All the three unofficial Tests of this series were drawn.

Control and Training

The Board of Control for Cricket in Pakistan (BCCP) is the main controlling body in the country. All the zonal and services organisations are affiliated to it. The two major tournaments of the country, the National Cricket Championship for the Quaid-i-Azam Trophy and the Zonal Cricket Championship for the Ayub Trophy are conducted by the BCCP. The Inter-University Cricket Championship is organised by the Universities Sports Control Board while the Education Boards of different regions look after the game at school and college level.

Formerly, annual coaching camps for students of universities, colleges and schools, used to be organised by the Sport Control Board, but now this is done at zonal level by divisional cricket bodies who are given grants-in-aid by the West Pakistan Sports Control Board. The Board of Control for Cricket in Pakistan organises its short camps only on the eve of an outside tour or when it is about to play host to a visiting team.

Hockey

Hockey is more properly Pakistan's national game and the world supremacy of the Indo-Pakistan sub-continent since 1928 was helped in no small measure by players from Pakistan territories.

In schools and colleges hockey has a primary place and when matches are held, especially with visiting teams, the seats fill up as fast as in the case of cricket.

International Matches

When Pakistan sent out its first team for the 1948 Olympics at London, this was regarded as the greatest threat to India's hockey supremacy, but Pakistan's performance, after a fine start, proved disappointing. She was beaten by Holland and England and so occupied fourth place behind India. In 1950, Pakistan remained unbeaten in the Barcelona Hockey International Tournament, but reverted back to her original position in the 1952 Helsinki Olympic Games in which again she finished fourth behind India, Britain and Holland. However, efforts to improve the game continued.

A West German team visited Pakistan in 1954-55 and lost the series. Later, a Pakistani team went on a short tour of Malaya, Hong Kong and Ceylon which ended in easy victories for her everywhere.

Pakistan met India for the first time in the final of the Melbourne Olympic Games of 1956, and India was lucky to retain her title when Pakistan was beaten by a solitary and disputed goal. Pakistan faced India next in the final of the 1958 Asian Games in Tokyo. The team clearly proved itself a superior combination, but nevertheless was deprived of an outright win because of missed chances. The match ended in a draw though Pakistan won the gold medal on better goal average. India was finally dethroned in the 1960 Olympics at Rome when Pakistan won the final by a solitary goal, scored by Nasir Bunda which later earned him the Helms Trophy. Pakistan confirmed their superiority two years later in the final of the Jakarta Asian Games in 1962, which they won 2—0.

After this some of the leading lights of the winning Pakistan team retired, including the captain of the gold medal winning team, Major Abdul Hamid, who retired soon after the Rome triumph, followed by Nasir Bunda, Habib Ali Kiddie and Noor Alam. This left a big gap in Pakistan's hockey and when the team next went to the Lyons Hockey Festival in 1963, this country finished fourth behind India, West Germany and Holland. In the 1964 Olympics, at Tokyo, Pakistan was beaten by India in the final and the latter regained the world crown. Again, in 1965, at the Hamburg Hockey Festival, Pakistan finished fifth behind India, Holland, West Germany and Belgium. Finally, Pakistan lost the Asian title as well, when she was beaten by India in the 1966 Bangkok final.

Control and Training

The Pakistan Hockey Federation (PHF) which controls this game was formed soon after independence. It is reorganising the game on better lines with a number of coaching and training camps set up for younger players. The PHF have also drawn up a schedule of tournaments in addition to the two major competitions, the National Hockey Championship and the Aga Khan Gold Cup, in order to provide more practice in competitive play.

Football

As in other parts of the world, the game of soccer is very popular in Pakistan. Next to cricket and hockey tests, a good game of football draws the biggest crowds. However, unlike the other games, this part of the sub-continent could not boast of any high standard of soccer before independence, even though the Peshawar and Quetta regions used to provide the famous teams of Calcutta with good players. Players like Omer, Hassan 'Killer', Ghafoor and Abid formed the last squad which went across the border to assist Mohammadan Sporting in Calcutta and after this the flow of Pakistani talent was stopped by the Pakistan Footballl Federation which put a ban on the appearance of Pakistani players for Indian teams.

When all the leading players were concentrated within the

country, the standard of soccer rose appreciably and the Pakistan team figured prominently in the 1958 pre-Olympic soccer ties in India. Later, Pakistan team also made its mark in the Merdeka Anniversary Celebrations Football Tournament in Kuala Lumpur. In the final there, the Pakistani team was beaten by Indonesia although this was against the run of play. Pakistan tried to qualify for the 1964 Olympic Football Tournament but was beaten by Iran in both ties of the qualifying round. Pakistan has entered again for the 1968 Olymic soccer and has been placed in group two along with Hong Kong, Thailand, Malaysia, Indonesia and Iraq.

National Matches

Football is the only game in which league tournaments are regularly staged all over the country. The major tournaments are the National Football Championship, the Aga Khan Gold Cup Football Tournament, in which outside teams also participate, and the National Youth Football Championship, which has been introduced only recently to discover young talent.

Training

Pakistani players were originally unfamiliar with the new soccer techniques being practised by the leading nations in this game. The PFF invited foreign teams to familiarise their own players with the new systems. The PFF also engaged foreign coaches for the training of leading and promising players, and sent a team of coaches for advanced training. These trained coaches of the PFF have already held a number of camps for the benefit of the other coaches.

Squash

Squash is the game of a few, usually confined to clubs in the cities. However, it has an importance among the sports of Pakistan because as in hockey and cricket, Pakistan has long enjoyed world stature.

The Pakistani Khans—Hashim, Roshan, Azam, Mohibullah—swept all before them in the world of Squash. Until they emerged, it was always Egypt, through Amr Bey in the twenties and early thirties, and Abdel Karim later on. These two ruled the British squash for about three decades.

The first real threat to the Egyptians came in 1951, when some Pakistan Air Force officers saw promise in young Hashim Khan and decided to send him to take part in the British Isles Open Squash Rackets Championship, whose winner is crowned as the unofficial world champion. Hashim Khan beat Abdel Karim most convincingly and thereafter, he remained supreme year after year.

Soon he was also joined in the British Open Squash by his younger brothers, Azam Khan and Roshan Khan. The "Squash Wizard" and his brothers went to the United States where too they remained unbeaten in competitive play, even though the American type of squash differs from those played elsewhere. To the titles of the United States, were added those of Australia and Canada, the latter claimed by Roshan Khan and Azam Khan respectively.

From 1951 onwards, Hashim Khan kept on winning the British

Open title until 1957, when Roshan Khan came on top. The title was then won by Azam Khan in 1958, 1959, 1960 and 1961, when he got settled in London and began to run a squash clinic. Azam Khan did not take part in the 1962 competition, but another Pakistani, the left-handed Mohibullah, a nephew of Hashim Khan, claimed the honours of that year. That marked the end of the triumph of the Pakistani Khans. The title went back to Egypt in 1963 when their Abu Taleb gained the lead. He won the title again in 1964 and 1965, but met reverse in 1966 at the hands of the Irish international, Jonah Barrington, who created British squash history. He became the first to win the open title as an amateur.

The British amateur title was claimed by another Pakistani player, Aftab Jawaid in 1963, 1964 and 1965. In 1966 Aftab Jawaid was beaten in the semi-finals by Australia's Dick Carter. This marked the end of Pakistan's 17-year-rule over world squash. Aftab Jawaid's was the last world title in Pakistan.

Control

The Pakistan Squash Rackets Association, which has changed its name to Pakistan Squash Rackets Federation, participated in a recent meeting in London at which was formed a world body for controlling this game in the major squash playing countries. The first World Squash Championship under this newly-formed organisation will be held in 1967, in Australia, to which four players from this country will be sent.

Training

The Pakistan Air Force last year set up a training and coaching camp for youngsters at Peshawar where young aspirants are being groomed by Pakistani coaches. The Pakistan Squash Rackets Federation have proposed building international standard squash courts shortly at a cost of over Rs 300,000 and when completed this will overcome the greatest handicap faced by squash players in this country.

Lawn Tennis

Lawn tennis is played only in clubs. The main centres are Peshawar and Rawalpindi in the north and Karachi in the south.

The best player of the country in the recent period has been left-handed Iftikhar Ahmad who for a number of years had been ranked second only to the great Ghaus Mohammad in India. Iftikhar was supreme while he remained in competitive play and he retired unbeaten in 1959. Pakistan has so far produced many national champions but none that rose to the stature of the former champion.

The All-Pakistan Lawn Tennis Association, which looks after the affairs of this game, occasionally sends players for participation in European tournaments. Pakistan has also competed in the Eastern Zone of the Davis Cup but without success. The only victory in this region was over Ceylon in 1964, and the only achievement in this branch has been the winning of the Shahinshah Cup, donated by the Shahinshah of Iran. The countries which have so far taken part in this annual contest are Iran, Iraq, Lebanon and Pakistan. The first contest

of the series was held in Teheran, the second in Beirut, both of which were won by Pakistan. The third is scheduled to be staged in Lahore.

Coaching camps are held regularly in the main cities, and there is good response from young players.

TableTennis

The game of table tennis also follows the pattern of lawn tennis. Even though it is played by thousands of players the standard has not risen to any appreciable degree. However, table tennis is the game which the largest number of tournaments held within the country, the most prominent of them all being the National Championships which are held in rotation in the major cities.

The Pakistan Table Tennis Federation (PTTF) have in the past sent their squad for participation in the World Championships, the Asian Championships and the Peking, Invitation International Tournament, but without achieving success. The PTTF are planning to engage Chinese coaches to help raise the standard among Pakistani players.

Badminton

Pakistan's badminton players are placed in the midst of too many 'giants'. As a result they have not been able to go beyond a particular ranking among world players. Malaysia, Indonesia and Thailand have all been champions of the world at one time or the other, all having produced many in world class. Pakistan Badminton Federation do enter the Thomas Cup contest every two years but have never succeeded beyond the first round.

Basketball

Basketball has gained popularity in recent years and Pakistani players have performed with distinction against representatives of neighbouring countries. The Pakistan Amateur Basketball Federation has been consistently trying through coaching and invitation to foreign teams, especially US teams, to improve the standard of the game. Except for taking part in invitation and triangular meetings with countries like Iran, Ceylon and India, Pakistani basketballers have yet to appear in any big international tournament. The game is being introduced in the rural areas by the provincial Sports Control Board.

Volleyball

The game volleyball is played everywhere, including the remotest parts of the countries but the standard of play is not very high. The Pakistan Volleyball Federation, which manages the affairs of this game, arranges visits of teams from Iran, Indonesia and Japan for international matches. In these, the visiting nations mostly get the upper hand. Pakistan's achievement came in 1961 when the Karachi Volleyball Association staged the Morgan international to which teams from Indonesia and Japan were also invited. Pakistan players subdued the Japanese in the final. Japan being the Asian champions in those days, this success encouraged the Volleyball Federation to take their chance in the 1962 Asian Games that were held in Jakarta. There, the Pakistani players managed to win the bronze medal.

Wrestling

Wrestling is one of the oldest sports of the sub-continent. Formerly patronised by ruling chiefs, it now receives great assistance from the government. The country has produced some of the world's greatest wrestlers. There was no match anywhere for the late Gama and his brother Imam Bux. Currently, the latter's son Manzoor Husain, more popularly known as Bholu, has no equal. He and his younger brother Aslam, Akram, Azam and Goga are masters not only of the oriental style but also of the free style, and have remained unbeaten in both.

Whenever anybody challenges Bholu, the challenger is asked to subdue his brothers first. None has succeeded in reaching Bholu for several years, as his brothers Aslam and Akram always prove too good for the wrestling champions of the rest of the world. Aslam has successfully contended with European, American and North American grapplers, and Akram has defeated champions from India and the Far Eastern countries. Thus the traditions built by the great Gama and Imam Bux are still being maintained by the family.

In the amateur field, Pakistan has not been so consistently at the top. Pakistan's amateur grapplers took some time to get used to the free style and the Greco-Roman style, which are the approved forms of wrestling in Olympic, Commonwealth and Asian Games. They took part in the world Championships in Bulgaria where they got to the ninth position. In the 1962 Asian Games in Jakarta, they came on top winning nine gold medals and also silver and bronze medals. Again in the British Empire and Commonwealth Games at Perth in 1963 they finished at the top with six gold medals. In 1964 Mohammad Bashir won the first ever Olympic medal for Pakistan when he got a bronze in the featherweight division. In the 1966 British Empire and Commonwealth Games in Jamaica, Pakistan wrestlers performed well, but won only two gold, one silver and one bronze medals.

The Pakistan Amateur Wrestling Federation, which control this branch of sports, keeps wrestlers under training almost throughout the year. The wrestlers are called upon to meet the grapplers of neighbouring countries like Iran and Russia in invitation bouts. The major event of the country is the National Wrestling Championship, which is organised annually by the PAWF, and is always watched by a capacity crowd.

Boxing

For a long time, boxing remained confined to the British army units or the English schools. The Punjab University was the first to form a club and their team first appeared in a boxing tournament in 1930. Later the Punjab Olympic Association included boxing in their list of sports. Later Punjab Amateur Boxing Association was formed in 1938 to look after the interests of this sport.

The Pakistan Amateur Boxing Federation has also been formed, which now arranges coaching and training camps for the amateurs. Meanwhile the sport spread further and became popular in schools and colleges. Now, it is included in most competitive meets.

Pakistani boxers have participated in the British Empire and Commonwealth Games, Asian Games and the Asian Championships. In addition, they have participated in dual meets with boxers from Ceylon and Iran. Pakistani boxers did well in the 1962 Asian Games when they won two gold and two silver medals. In 1963, in the first Asian Boxing Championships, they won three gold and three bronze medals. In the recently held Bangkok Asian Games, their tally was restricted to two silver and one bronze medals.

Swimming

Swimming as a sport is popular in organised units, such as the military services and the railways, or in the countryside. Competitive standards are not yet very high. Olympic size pools, of which there were none so far, are now proposed in the coaching and training centres under construction at places like Dacca and Karachi under the auspices of the Sports Control Board of Pakistan.

In the international field, Pakistan's ace swimmer, Brojen Das, became the first Asian to cross the English Channel in his first attempt. A year later he swam the Channel both ways within a month. Brojen also set a new record by crossing the Channel from France to England in 10 hours 35 minutes. In all, he has so far crossed the Channel six times, which no other swimmer has done. Another Pakistani, Abdul Malek, also crossed the English Channel in 1966 and took even less time than Brojen.

The Pakistan Amateur Swimming Federation conducts this sport in the country.

Aquatic Sports

Yachting, rowing and water-polo are all confined to a couple of private clubs. Sailing and yachting competitions are, however, regularly held at the Karachi Yacht Club. Water-polo is the only event which has been included in the swimming section of the National Games of Pakistan.

Fishing is popular because it is within the reach of most people and angling competitions are generally held in villages. The sport is confined to salmon, trout, shark and also coarse fish. Some of the artificial lakes are restricted areas where fishing permits have to be obtained first. Deep sea fishing also needs a permit.

Athletics

Soon after independence, Pakistan started producing highly talented athletes, due chiefly to the efforts of the Army Sports Control Board. The first to earn a name was sprinter Abdul Khaliq who gave an outstanding display in the 100 metres at a triangular meet in which India and Iran had participated. Pakistani representatives did well in the second Asian Games that were held in Manila. They won a number of gold medals on that occasion. Abdul Khaliq became the fastest human in Asia with his timing ranging between 10.4 and 10.2 seconds. In a Military Meet in West Germany Abdul Khaliq, while finishing a close third, was timed at 10.1 seconds. Unitil 1958, Pakistanis remained supreme in the Asian

titles for 100 metres (Abdul Khaliq), hammer throw (Mohammad Iqbal), javelin throw (Mohammad Nawaz and Jalal Khan), distance running (Mubarak Shah) and 110 metres hurdles (Ghulam Raziq). Later, Mohammad Iqbal won the Commonwealth hammer title, which feat was also repeated by Raziq who held the British Empire title till 1966 when he was beaten to second place. Mubarak Shah was at his best in the Jakarta Asian Games of 1962 when he achieved a grand double by claiming gold medals in the 3,000 metres steeplechase and the 5,000 metres. Abdul Khaliq and Ghulam Raziq were unlucky not to have qualified for the final of their respective events in the Melbourne Olympic of 1956. Both the sportsmen were beaten to fourth places by a hair's breadth by their rivals who had also recorded equal timings. Ghulam Raziq also qualified for the semi-finals of the Rome Olympics, 110 metres hurdles while his latest was the regaining of the Asian hurdles title in December 1966, which he had lost to Indonesia's Saranget in 1962.

Weight-Lifting

Weight-lifting is a most strenuous sport but there are always some who take interest in it. Championships, at divisional, regional and zonal levels, are a regular feature and abroad, Pakistani teams have taken part in all the Asian Games, Commonwealth games and other international contests but no honours have been won at international meets.

Cycling

Cycling is still in its infancy in this country, but cycling competitions are held almost throughout the year. Pakistani cyclists entered the Asian Games on a couple of occasions, but failed to earn distinction. Distance and road races are held regularly in all the major cities of Pakistan by the zonal organisations to which representatives of other units are also invited.

The Karachi Amateur Cycling Association have planned to build a velodrome in the near future.

Kabaddi

Kabaddi is essentially an indigenous sport requiring tact and much stamina from the players. It is a battle of breath and strength between the intruders and the defenders of a territiory. It is a popular game among the village youth and frequent matches are held between teams from different areas. A Pakistan Kabaddi Federation has been formed recently for popularising the sport in urban areas also.

Skiing

Skiing as a popular sport is in the formative stage. There are winter sport facilities in the mountains in the north of West Pakistan where efforts are being made to develop the sport. Preliminary arrangements have already been made for establishing a skii centre at the developing tourist resort in Swat called Malam Jaba. The centre will be ready by 1968.

Mountaineering

A number of mountaineering clubs exist in Pakistan, specially in the northern region of West Pakistan. Many foreign expeditions

have scaled some of the well-known peaks of this counrty, the highest being K2, which is next only to the Everest. Expeditions are also sponsored in collaboration with foreign clubs.

Some of the Universities have their mountaineering expeditions or clubs.

Flying

Flying is becoming popular. This can be gauged from the enrolement of amateur flyers and the development of flying clubs, of which there are now seven in both the wings of the country. There are two categories of amateur flyers: those who later take to commercial flying and those who fly just for sport. The former leave the clubs after completing the prescribed schedule of flying hours; the latter continue to remain as members. The aero-clubs have women members also.

Rifle Shooting

The tribal people of the north west of West Pakistan are known for their marksmanship and for their skill in rifle making. There are rifle-shooting organisations all over the country—at district, divisional and national levels. Shooting competitions are regularly held and teams of other countries are also invited.

The National Rifle Shooting Association is responsible for organising and promoting the sport.

Hunting

Hunting is again popular among the hardy. The East wing of the country especially abounds in wild life, and the Sunderbans have been known for centuries for its tigers and panthers. Hunting implements and procedures vary from region to region and the Bengal tiger is, at some places, killed with an axe. However, big game hunting is beyond the general reach. Fox, duck, and rabbit hunting and partridge shooting are comparatively more common.

Government controls the possession of arms and ammunition and permits are not issued indiscriminately. Hunting licences are granted liberally during the hunting season on payment of a nominal fee.

Racing

In the past races used to be held in this part of the sub-continent only at two centres, Lahore and Karachi. The standard of the sport was not as high as witnessed at centres like Bombay and Calcutta, though perhaps better than those of Madras and Poona. When Pakistan came into being, the Jockey Club of Pakistan was formed. This club like the racing centres in India, was affiliated to the Jockey Club of London, under whose rules racing was conducted in this part of the world.

At the moment, the JCP looks after the conduct of this sport at centres like Lahore, Karachi and Rawalpindi where big meeting are held annually. Until the year 1965, races under the JCP rules were staged only at Lahore and Karachi and Rawalpindi was given that status in 1966.

The racing season in Pakistan starts in the first week of each year at Lahore and continues until the end of March. After this, Karachi becomes the centre of attraction for big races, until the last Sunday of December. However, the JCP has made some changes with effect from 1967. The Karachi Race Club is now permitted to continue the big race meetings into the next season, called the Spring Meetings. The usual Karachi racing seasons are the Summer Meeting, the Monsoon Meeting and the Winter Meeting. The racing season at Lahore starts with the New Year Meeting and Autumn Meeting.

As in Britain, classics are also held in Pakistan. They are the 1,000 Guineas, the 2,000 Guineas, the Pakistan Derby and the Pakistan St. Leger. They are followed by semi-classics like the Colts' Trials, the Fillies' Trials and the Colts and Fillies' Trials. Other major racing events are the Prince Aly Khan Gold Cup, Queen Elizabeth Gold Cup and then, the biggest of them all, the blue ribbon of the Pakistan turf, the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup. The Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup, the 2,000 Guineas, the St. Leger and the Prince Aly Khan Gold Cup are run at Karachi, while Lahore Race Club stage the 1,000 Guineas, the Pakistan Derby and Queen Elizabeth Gold Cup. In addition to these, there are innumerable other cup events which are contested on open handicap races and for horses belonging to particular age groups. The Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup carries the biggest stakes, the amount to be won by the runners going well over one hundred and twenty thousand rupees. The last winner of this coveted trophy received over Rs 83,000, and the last Pakistan Derby earned a little less than Rs 80,000.

The racing centres of the sub-continent used to be fed before independence by stud farms at Sahiwal and Renala which still continue to flourish in West Pakistan along with some new stud farms. Breeders of these centres are permitted by the Government to import stallions and brood-mares. These stud farms have produced animals which, in the past have won all the classics in the sub-continent. The best horse produced at these farms after independence was Nero, twice the winner of the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup, while the best filly and the most outstanding runner of Pakistan is Montreux, who first got the name of the "Wonder Filly" and was later called the "Queen of the Pakistan Turf" for her record-smashing displays at both the big centres of racing. Montreux won twenty times out of her twenty-four starts, winning all the semi-classics and classics, including the Quaid-i-Azam Gold Cup, most of them in record times. Both Nero and Montreux have recently been retired to stud.

WOMEN IN SPORTS

Pakistani women entered sport rather late and even now their activities are confined to a few branches. Lawn Tennis and badminton are the main games in which girls from this part of the sub-continent have competed in major tournaments. Now girls regularly appear in national tournaments of lawn tennis, table tennis, badminton

and athletics. Lately, girls in schools and colleges have started playing softball and some are also showing skill in games like golf and squash. Lawn tennis was dominated in the early years by Mrs. Taqi Butt, who was succeeded by Miss Parveen Sheikh, now Mrs. Nasir Ahmad, who appeared in the Wimbledon championships. The most outstanding table tennis star was Miss Sayeeda Sultana in the middle fifties, followed by Miss Fowzia Khan, and then by Mrs. Munira Gulzar. Miss Shamim Sheikh is the current champion of the game.

In badminton, the most prominent have been Miss Elsie Hunt, Miss Nighat Sultana and Miss Talat Sultana who gained the top honours successively in the last three years. Golf champion is Miss Ghizala Ansari, who also toured Ceylon very successfully, and Miss Munazza Jabeen, the champion athlete from upcountry. Pakistani girls have appeared in international badminton and table tennis, against Chinese and Japanese girls.

Pakistani girls have also taken to flying, and a few are working successfully as instructors.

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30. FOREIGN RELATIONS

Introductory.

The Neighbours. India; Afghanistan; China; the USSR; Burma; Ceylon.

Muslim States. RCD COUNTRIES : Iran; Turkey; ARAB COUNTRIES: UAR; Jordan; Iraq; Saudi Arabia; Syria; Lebanon; The Maghreb; General Policy.

Afro-Asian Countries. General; Indonesia; Malaysia.

The West. Britain; France; West Germany; Italy; The USA; Defence Pacts: SEATO; CENTO.

International Issues. Palestine; Apartheid; UN Peace-keeping Operations; Disarmament; Nuclear Tests; Non-proliferation of Nuclear Weapons; Southern Rhodesia; South-West Africa.

Representation on International Committees.

Apart from the basic needs for the maintenance of world peace and mutual understanding and ensuring justice and fairplay in international relations, Pakistan's relations with other countries of the world have been governed by the following main factors : her position on the world map; her ideological correspondence with the Muslim world; her affinity with the developing countries of Africa and Asia; her relations with the West; and her requirements for survival and progress. All these factors have helped shape Pakistan's foreign relations in varying measure.

In recent years, Pakistan's foreign relations have been marked by greater vigour and frankness. Pakistan has spoken her mind on major world issues. She has made it clear when her interests were jeopardized by the actions of others; has refused to countenance actions she thought did not contribute to world peace; has urged strong action wherever called for; and has herself fought aggression on her borders. ''We have given no label to this policy'', President Ayub has said, ''nor do we seek high sounding ideological or moralistic justification for it, believing firmly that what matters in the affairs of nations, as in dealings among men, are the qualities of commonsense, honesty and goodwill. It is the word of men of integrity that, in the final analysis, counts in the international world as it does in private life''.

NEIGHBOURS

India

In her foreign relations Pakistan has had serious trouble only with India. She is the only country with which Pakistan's repeated efforts to form a working relationship have failed. The basic reason for this is historical.

The Indian National Congress (the political party that has dominated Indian politics since before independence) was bitterly opposed to the demand for Pakistan. When Pakistan was formed, the hostility transferred from the demand to the reality that took its place. Even when grudgingly accepting the independence plan on 3rd June 1947, the Congress Committee had given notice of its future attitude ; it had declared in a resolution that a reunification of the two countries was inevitable. Passage of time did not weaken this hope. Responsible Indian leaders publicly reiterated it in one form or another. The further their hope receded, the greater has been their chagrin. This is characterised by arrogance and intolerance in India's dealings with Pakistan.

It is against the background of this attitude that Pakistan has had to find a *modus vivendi* with that country.

Apart from the communal holocaust that occurred on independence, on both sides of the Indo-Pakistan border, followed by the greatest movement of population known to history, there were, at government level, several other problems created for Pakistan—such as disputes over financial arrangements, distribution of military stores, and suspension by India of Pakistan's coal supply. More serious were India's stoppage of canal waters of the Indus and her forcible occupation of a large part of Jammu and Kashmir State. India's unfriendliness towards Pakistan found such other channels as the ill-treatment of Muslim minorities in India accompanied by their eviction to Pakistan in large numbers. Continous clashes between border guards, and threatening concentration of Indian troops along the border. Some of the problems Pakistan has been confronted with India are briefly described below.

The Arbitral Tribunal had fixed Rs 750 million as Pakistan's share out of the Rs 4,000 million that stood as cash balances at independence. India paid Rs 200 million of these and held up the remaining, saying that their payment would depend on the settlement of the Kashmir issue. The Indian leader, Mr. Gandhi himself, had indirectly to rebuke his government for this.

Pakistan was entitled to a share of 160 train loads of military stores. Very little of this did actually come, and several of the trains that came were loaded with bricks and stones.

Inspite of the Standstill Agreement between the two countries for maintaining their mutual trade, in December 1947, India imposed custom duty on jute manufactures exported to Pakistan. Later when India devalued her currency in September 1949, and Pakistan

did not, the former refused to accept the new par value of the currencies of the two countries. In December 1949, she stopped the supply of coal to Pakistan which created a crisis in Pakistan since the latter had, until then, entirely depended on Indian supplies.

A major dispute between India and Pakistan concerned the sharing of the waters of the Indus system. India claimed proprietory rights on the waters of the three rivers, the Ravi, the Beas and the Sutlej. To establish this claim, on 1st April 1948, India cut off water supplies to the canals irrigating Pakistan but having their headworks in India. This meant starvation for millions of people in this country. Long years of negotiations followed with the World Bank as an intermediary. Eventually an agreement was reached in 1960. The loss to Pakistan of waters from the Eastern Rivers is to be made up through replacement work which will divert waters from the Western Rivers. These works are being built with the financial assistance of the World Bank and friendly countries.

According to the Indpendence Plan of 1947, while the British territories were divided into India and Pakistan on the basis of communal majority areas, it was provided that the princely states should be allowed themselves to decide which of the two dominions they wished to accede to. It was also emphasised by Lord Mountbatten, and agreed to by Mr. Nehru, that in cases where disputes arose between the rulers and the ruled, the wishes of the people would prevail. Controversy arose in the case of three states, Junagadh, Hyderabad, and Jammu and Kashmir. The first two were Hindu majority states with Muslim rulers. The third had an overwhelming Muslim population with a Hindu Maharajah.

The Nawab of Junagadh decided to accede to Pakistan. The Indian Government made a strong objection. Pakistan agreed to discuss with India arrangements for a plebiscite. However,India proceeded to put off the state's postal, telegraph and air communication, and the customary supply of coal and petrol. Indian troops, reinforced by tanks and fighters aircraft, marched to the frontiers of the State, and its administration was taken over by force.

Hyderabad, a much larger state, wanted to remain independent. But later under the pressure of the Indian Government, the Nizam of Hyderabad concluded a Standstill Agreement with India for one year, 'but in no way permanently prejudicing my rights as an independent sovereign'. Just two months before the agreement was to expire India again sent her troops and annexed Hyderabad.

The case of the Jammu and Kashmir state has been much the most crucial problem Pakistan has had with India, and it has so far continued to defy solution despite earnest efforts of Pakistan, of several friendly countries and of the United Nations over the past twenty years.

Jammu and Kashmir

The case of Jammu and Kashmir was the reverse of that of Junagadh. The population here was overwhelmingly Muslim and the Maharajah was a Hindu. The state was also contiguous to Pakistan.

The Maharajah first entered into a Standstill Agreement with Pakistan. According to this agreement the arrangements that had existed between the State and the outgoing British Government were to continue now as between the State and the Pakistan Government as it was assumed that the State would accede to Pakistan. However, after signing this agreement the Maharajah set about creating abnormal condition within the State which would give the pretext he was looking for. He imported from neighbouring areas of India volunteers of extremely militant anti-Muslim organisations who were indulging in communal murders in India. Aided by the forces of the State, they spread out in villages and started a merciless process of elimination and mass murder of the Muslim population. As the planned atrocities of the Maharajah spread, popular resistance against it began. The Kashmiris having evacuated their terror-stricken women and children across the border, organised a resistance, joined by their friends and relations from the north-west frontier. The retaliation was strong and the Maharajah's forces were scattered. He himself had to flee his capital. In October 1947, these fighters set up an Azad Kashmir Government in the liberated third of the State.

During this period, several messages had been exchanged between the Government of Pakistan and the State. Pakistan had protested against the mass-scale atrocities against Muslims, and the State Government, as a subterfuge, accused Pakistan of organising 'raids'. Pakistan agreed to impartial inquiry of the whole affair but the State authorities made no response. Instead, the Maharajah invited the Indian army into Kashmir. India asked for accession of the State to India as a pre-condition and the Maharajah readily agreed. Thereafter Indian troops started pouring into Kashmir where they have stayed since, as occupation forces suppressing the local population. When, in 1948, Indian forces launched an offensive in the State in a way that threatened West Pakistan's flank, Pakistan was also forced to move a limited number of its troops to defensive positions in the State.

The Maharajah's accession to India is invalid on the following grounds:

(*a*) It militated against the basic principles of partition which was that India and Pakistan would comprise the contiguous majority areas of Hindus and Muslims respectively.

(*b*) It was demonstrably against the wishes of the people and therefore, violated the principles agreed upon in the interest of good relations between India and Pakistan that where the ruler of a state belonged to a community other than the majority community of his state and the state had not acceded to a dominion whose majority community was the same as its own, the question whether the state had finally acceded to one or the other dominion shall be ascertained by reference to the will of the people.

(*c*) In asking for and accepting the so-called accession, the Indian Government was reversing the logic which it sought to apply to Junagadh and Hyderabad.

Pakistan's other objections were:

(*d*) There was already in existence a Standstill Agreement between the State and Pakistan, which was a legal bar to any unilateral alteration of the existing position.

(*e*) At the time when accession was offered, the Maharajah was in flight, and had been divested of power over large portions of the State by a successful popular rebellion.

(*f*) The acceptance by India of the 'accession' was by its own declaration 'provisional and conditional'.

At the time of accession and afterwards, the Governor-General, Lord Mountbatten, and the Prime Minister, Mr. Nehru, declared that the final decision was to be made by the people of Kashmir. This assurance continued to be given by India to Pakistan, to the people of Kashmir and to the rest of the world for several years afterwards, by the highest Indian authorities. But suddenly, about 1953, the Indian line changed, and it began to claim that the accession to India was 'irrevocable', and the State was an 'integral part of India'.

From the beginning, Pakistan tried for a settlement through direct negotiations with the Maharajah and the Indian Government. Despite the fact that even approaching India for talks on the subject became increasingly difficult as time passed, Pakistan has made no less than five protracted attempts during past years, at the highest levels.

When the issue was taken to the United Nations in 1948 the Security Council after hearing both the Indian and the Pakistan representatives, decided that the only just and democratic solution of the dispute was to determine the accession of the State in accordance with the freely expressed will of the people.

The Security Council in two Resolutions asked for: (*i*) cease fire between the two countries and demarcation of the cease-fire line; (*ii*) truce agreement and demilitarisation of the State of Jammu and Kashmir; and (*iii*) plebiscite under the auspices of the UN. The Council set up a commission for India and Pakistan (UNCIP) for securing agreement of the two governments on these points.

The cease-fire took effect from January 1949, and a cease-fire line was demarcated by July 1949. It has since then been watched by a group of United Nations' Observers. Breaches from the Indian side have been very frequent. Up to the end of 1966, Pakistan has had to lodge some 6,000 complaints with the UN observers. There was some advance towards the implementation of the second part of the Security Council resoulution but further progress was balked by India's refusal to synchronise withdrawal of her troops with those of Pakistan troops. Since then, the Security Council has made more than half a dozen attempts at settling the dispute. It appointed a series of persons of high repute to help get the issue resolved, but India did not agree to any of the proposals made by them, while Pakistan has agreed

on every occasion.

Meanwhile, inside Kashmir, the pattern of suppression of Muslims, set in 1947, has had to be maintained to show acquiescence of the people in the accession. Six whole divisions of the Indian army have been kept in the State, but despite this, popular sentiment has now and again expressed itself in no uncertain terms. In 1963, the people made the loss of a holy relic an occasion for showing their general dissatisfaction in the streets and public places of occupied Kashmir. Again in 1965, it was necessary for the Indian army to set about suppressing a massive show of popular discontent. The eviction of Kashmiris from the occupied part into the liberated part is a continuous process, and recently became the subject of a reference to the Security Council by Pakistan.

All political activity by local people (as distinct from those carried from the Indian base) is curbed. Political leaders of standing, from Sheikh Abdullah downwards, have been kept behind prison bars. Sheikh Abdullah himself has been kept in an Indian jail from 1951 till now, with two brief spells of release.

Indian Aggression

India has throughout been conscious of its superior military strength. After the cease-fire in Kashmir, in January 1948, Pakistan was repeatedly threatened by the highest Indian leaders with 'other methods', with being 'taught a lesson', with being made 'to behave'. These threats did not remain limited to words. In early 1950, the Pakistan Prime Minister had to warn his people that India was preparing for war. Later that year, when an agreement was reached between the Prime Ministers of the two countries, the Indian Prime Minister indirectly confirmed this by saying, "we have stopped ourselves at the edge of a precipices..." Next year, the Pakistan Prime Minister again revealed Indian troop movements in East Punjab and occupied Kashmir: "In particular all its armoured formations have been moved forward within easy striking distance of West Pakistan". The editor of an Indian newspaper Mr. Ian Stephens, also wrote later: "By the first week of March, war had nearly come; the two countries were within a hair's breadth of it. Troops had been moved not only in Bengal but—more perturbingly—in the Punjab. India's armoured division, to which no real Pakistan counterpart existed, was pushed forward in a way which threatened Lahore". Subsequently, the Indian Prime Minister himself admitted that the Government of India had decided to send 'a few units' to the borders ofthe Punjab. Then came the practical manifestation of this Indian aggressive attitude. In early 1956, Indian armed forces occupied Chhad Bet in the Rann of Kutch, an area that had been under dispute for many years. Pakistan made a strong protest to the Government of India, but in accordance with its policy of maintaining peace as long as possible, avoided taking any military action.

In early 1957, India again massed troops on the borders of Pakistan, occupying strategic positions. Both the President and Prime Minister

of Pakistan made public protests. Nevertheless, in April 1958, Indian border forces started firing across the Cachar-Sylhet border in East Pakistan rather frequently, and the Indian Home Minister threatened 'to show India's might to Pakistan in a befitting manner'.

Conscious as India had been of her size in relation to Pakistan, it was not until she received an enormous accession of military strength (through western assistance on the plea of fighting the Chinese) that she gathered enough courage to put her threats into practice. Pakistan had anticipated this. After the rush of western arms to India she had made strong protests to those countries and warned of the dangers inherent in it. During 1964, especially, the President of Pakistan referred repeatedly to the imminence of the threat to Pakistan. Events soon proved Pakistan's fears justified.

Rann of Kutch

India made the beginning by testing Pakistan's strength in a marshy, desert region, the Rann of Kutch.

The Rann (meaning desert) of Kutch is a desolate tract of 9,000 square miles, lying between latitude 22°25′ and 24° 43′ N and longitude 28° 45′ and 71° 45′ E. Its width varies from 25 to 35 miles in the north to two miles in the east.

A part of the Rann, some 3,500 square miles of it, was for more than a century the subject of a dispute between the Kutch State and the province of Sind. The dispute was bequeathed by the British Government to India and Pakistan along with the latter territories, the first going to India and the second coming to Pakistan. India claims that the boundary between Sind and Kutch was well-established and defined from 1872 onwards, and the Rann of Kutch was invariably shown as falling within the Western India States Agency which became part of India as a result of accession.

In the ministerial conferences, held during 1959-60, at the initiative of President Ayub, India had asked that discussion on this border dispute may be postponed to allow her time for collection of data in support of her contention to which Pakistan agreed.

But obviously India had gained time to make preparations for settling the issue militarily, just as it had done with the issues of Junagadh, Hyderabad, Kashmir and Goa. Having already occupied Chhad Bet in 1956, it moved further in 1965, being more confident of its greatly augmented military strength. Knowing fully well that if it was not stopped now, it will not stop anywhere, Pakistan decided to check this advance. Indian forces were defeated in the ensuing fights. Pakistan did not, however, take advantage of that defeat by occupying any Indian territory. Instead, it readily agreed to an adjudication of the dispute as proposed at a Conference held by the British Prime Minister.

The Indian Prime Minister was, however, reluctant to agree to any adjudication, as he apprehended that the acceptance of any effective international machinery for settling this dispute peacefully could compromise overall Indian aggressive designs against Pakistan. But

the British Prime Minister ultimately succeeded in persuading him to agree. An agreement was signed between India and Pakistan on 1st July 1965, whereby the countries agreed to a disengagement of their troops in the desert, following which there was to be a ministerial meeting to negotiate the dispute. If that meeting failed, the dispute was to be referred to an international tribunal, comprising three judges, one named by Pakistan, another by India, and the third, the presiding judge, to be a nominee of the UN Secretary General.

The ministerial conference which was due to be held in August was unilaterally called off by India, asked the dispute to be directly referred to the tribunal. Accordingly, the tribunal was later set up as provided and the hearing began in February 1966.

Indian Attack of September 1965

The high point of Indian aggression came just a few months after her rebuff in the Rann of Kutch in September 1965. What had often been darkly hinted at by India ever since independence, and especially feared in Pakistan since the commencement of Western military aid to India, came to pass when, in the pre-dawn hours of 6th September, Indian forces crossed the international boundary dividing India and West Pakistan to launch a full-fledged, but undeclared, war on this country. After being worsted at the Rann of Kutch, India's top leaders had given public warning that next time they would attack—'at a time and place of their own choosing'.

India skilfully created her own pretext and provocation for the attack.

Continued occupation of a territory much against the wishes of the people necessitates repressive measures. When Sheikh Abdullah was arrested for the third time in May 1965, there were public demonstrations and much anger and the Indians reacted with more repression. As the repression mounted so did Kashmiri people's resistance to it. There were a series of demonstrations, strikes and demands for self-determination. From the other side came burning of villages, imprisonments, torture and killing. On 9th August 1965, the anniversary of Sheikh Abdullah's first imprisonment, a radio station, calling itself *Voice of Kashmir*, came on the air and announced the formation of a Revolutionary Council.

India had so far claimed complete normalcy within the occupied state. Faced with this wave of violent unrest, the news of which could not altogether be kept away from the rest of the world, she found a ruse. She claimed that the freedom fighters were not the local people risen up against her strangle-hold but infiltrators sent across the cease-fire line by Pakistan. The number of these so-called infiltrators was first stated to be 1,000 and then stretched out at different times to anywhere upto 5,000. She did not feel it necessary at any time to explain how 5,000 people could infiltrate a cease-fire line guarded by 125,000 armed Indian soldiers, and how could only, 5,000 people create a state of rebellion in occupied Kashmir, which attracted the force of the Indian army, without the support of the Kashmiri

people.

However, on May 17 the Indian forces occupied three posts in Azad Kashmir across the cease-fire line on such pretexts. But they had to vacate them a month and a half later on the intervention of the United Nations. In August 1965, the Indian Defence Minister declared: "Wherever India has found it necessary to cross the cease-fire line (in Kashmir) to defend it, it has done so, and I have no doubt we are ready to do it again." To prove this, on 25th August, Indian forces again crossed the cease-fire line at two places, occupying two posts in the Titwal Sector, and some posts on the Uri-Poonch Sector, both in Azad Kashmir. Seven days later they took the Haji Pir Pass. The Indian radio called these newly occupied areas 'liberated territories'. It was, therefore, clear that India was now on the march in Azad Kashmir for 'liberating' which posed a grave threat to the security of Pakistan itself. In the face of this Pakistan could not hold back for long.

On 1st September, a whole week after India's new occupations, Azad Kashmir forces, supported by Pakistani troops, crossed the cease-fire line in their turn, occupying Chhamb and Dewa in the occupied Kashmir. India immediately escalated the fighting by throwing in her air force. Four days later the Azad forces captured Jaurian, an important point on the Indian occupied side.

Having met with such strong retaliation in Kashmir, India quickly made the next move of her plan. She launched a direct attack on Pakistan. The attack came on 6th September and lasted till 23rd September, when a cease-fire was agreed upon at the intervention of the UNO. From the very first day India, in spite of having attacked in strength, received severe treatment. It opened three different fronts one after another, but instead of making any gains kept losing heavily in men and material.

Peace-making

On 1st September, the Secretary General of the United Nations issued appeals to Pakistan and India for respecting the cease-fire line in Kashmir. On 4th and 6th September, the Security Council passed resolutions calling on the two countries to cease fire and withdraw their armed personnel to their sides of the cease-fire line. Then the UN Secretary-General U Thant visited Pakistan and India from 9th to 15th September. Pakistan presented to him a three point plan for achieving a purposeful peace. This envisaged an immediate cease-fire, replacement of Indian and Pakistani forces in Kashmir by a UN-sponsored Afro-Asian force to maintain order in the states, and the holding of a plebiscite in Kashmir within three months.

On 20th September, the Security Council adopted a resolution demanding a cease-fire with effect from 22nd September, followed by withdrawal of forces. It also provided that the Council should consider the steps 'to be taken to assist towards a settlement of the political problem underlying the present conflict'. Pakistan considered the resolution 'unsatisfactory', but accepted it 'in the interest of

international peace and in order to enable Security Council to evolve a self-executing procedure, which will lead to an honourable settlement of the root cause of the present conflict'. On India's request the Council agreed to extend the deadline for cease-fire by one day, during which India made frantic efforts to recover its lost territories in Rajasthan and other areas in order to save its face before the Indian public, but the armed forces of Pakistan frustrated all such attempts.

Tashkent Meeting

The Soviet Union showed great concern over the conflict, especially because 'it has occurred in an area directly adjacent to the borders of the Soviet Union'. In two identical messages of 4th and 17th September to the President of Pakistan and Prime Minister of India, the Soviet Premier urged cessation of hostilities and offered the good offices of the Soviet Union for negotiation.

Pakistan had noted with satisfaction a change in the Soviet attitude on Kashmir, from complete partisanship for India towards a degree of neutrality. She, therefore, accepted the proposal of a summit meeting at Tashkent.

The meeting between President Ayub and Prime Minister Shastri took place at Tashkent on 4th January, 1966. Thereafter the dialogue continued chiefly through the good offices of the Soviet Prime Minister. On 10th January, a declaration was signed by the two statesmen, with Mr. Kosygin as a witness.

In the declaration, the two countries reaffirmed their obligation under the Charter, agreeing to maintain peace and develop good relations between them. The Kashmir dispute was specifically mentioned in the declaration with a view to removing "tension between the two countries".

In pursuance of this Declaration, the armed personnel, on both sides was withdrawn to original positions, prisoners of war were returned and the diplomatic representatives of both countries resumed their positions.

Apart from that, the Tashkent Declaration in the result, achieved little by way of improving relations between India and Pakistan. India did nothing to settle the Kashmir dispute, main cause of all tension between them. Instead, the top Indian leaders constantly stressed that Kashmir was an integral part of India, thus defying the spirit of Tashkent. Therefore, President Ayub wrote to Prime Minister Kosygin on the first anniversary of the Declaration: "It is a matter of disappointment to us, as it must be to you, that the promise offered by the Tashkent Declaration has not been fully realised". He went on to say: "I must confess that so far we have not been able to convince India that so long as the Jammu and Kashmir dispute remains unresolved, relations between our two countries will continue to suffer from stresses and strains. But we remain hopeful that India will recognise the immense advantages of settling this dispute and thus creating an atmosphere of harmony and goodwill between our two countries".

A commentator of the Soviet News Agency Tass wrote in a somewhat similar vein on the occasion. "Unfortunately there are not enough reasons now to say that relations between India and Pakistan became really friendly ", he regretted, but went on to recount some gains made.

Indian Muslims

One outlet for India's hostility towards Pakistan is the Muslim minority population of India itself. Besides being persecuted, the Indian Muslims are forcibly evicted across the border into Pakistan, in order to add to Pakistan's population and her employment and rehabilitation problems.

While, in Pakistan, almost no rioting has occurred since independence, there have been over five hundred serious anti-Muslim riots in India. Even in the Indian Parliament it has been acknowledged that the Muslims in India 'walk in the shadow of death'. The ban-cow-slaughter campaign was just a recent manifestation of anti-Muslim Hindu revivalism. Muslim residents of occupied Kashmir have been evicted in thousands in destitute conditions. Similarly, Indian Muslims are being evicted into East Pakistan in large numbers on the ground that they are of Pakistan origin and had infiltrated into India. Various proofs of their Indian citizenship are ignored. Pakistan's proposal to get their origin settled by an impartial tribunal has been turned down for obvious reasons. All this is being continued despite the fact that there is a clause in the Taskhent Declaration that 'both sides will create conditions which will prevent the exodus of people'.

Breach of Other Agreements

India has not been honouring several of its other international bilateral agreements with Pakistan. It has failed to carry out the 1958 agreement between the two countries in respect of the border settlement. The area of Berubari on the eastern side is yet to be restored to Pakistan. This also contravenes the Taskhent Declaration which has specifically asked for 'measures to implement the existing agreements between India and Pakistan'.

In order to maintain its economic aggression against Pakistan, India is now constructing a barrage on the River Ganges, at Farrakka, about 11 miles from East Pakistan's border. This barrage will divert 40,000 cusecs of Ganges water. Therefore, as a lower riparian, Pakistan stands to suffer immeasurably as it will damage one-quarter of the total cultivable land of East Pakistan and affect the living conditions of about 13 million people.

India has also planned some other projects on the major tributaries of the Ganges for destroying East Pakistan'se conomy.

Afghanistan

Pakistan's efforts to establish friendly relations with all its neighbours have borne fruits in respect of Afghanistan. Through the good offices of the Shahinshah of Iran, the relations between these two countries, broken off earlier, were resumed in May 1963. Since then through good will and co-operation on both sides, relations are

improving steadily.

Many visits have been exchanged between the Heads of the two States. President Iskander Mirza of Pakistan paid a good will visit to Kabul in 1956, followed next year by Prime Minister Suhrawardy. These visits were returned by Prime Minister, Prince Daud Khan and King Zahir Shah in 1957 and 1958 respectively. President Ayub also visited Afghanistan in January 1966. This was returned by the Afghan King in February 1967.

According to observers, the people of Afghanistan expressed their support for Pakistan when it was invaded by India in September 1965. In Afghan homes, there were prayer for Pakistan and condemnation of the wanton Indian attack.

The two countries have been co-operating in several ways. There is a regular air service, a direct radio telephone link, and increasing communications between the two countries. Afghanistan gets favoured treatment in Pakistan for railway, storage and port facilities.

China

One of the most important neighbours of Pakistan is the People's Republic of China in the north. The Sinkiang province adjoins Hunza and Gilgit in West Pakistan, and East Pakistan is separated from the Republic by the Himalayan range and the Himalayan Kingdoms.

Pakistan was one of the first countries to recognize the People's Republic of China, three months after its establishment in October, 1949.

Two early events set the pattern for Sino-Pakistan relations. When in September 1949, Britain, devalued sterling India followed suit but Pakistan did not. India refused to accept the new par value of Pakistan currency and trade between the two countries came to a halt. Until then, India was Pakistan's chief trading partner, meeting among other things the bulk of her coal requirements, and lifting most of her products of jute and cotton. At this crucial moment for Pakistan, China stepped in with a barter deal for supplying coal against jute and cotton.

At the outbreak of Korean War, Pakistan expressed its inability to the United Nations to send troops to fight with UN forces against North Korea and her Chinese allies. It also abstained from voting on the US sponsored resolution in the UN General Assembly which called for branding China as an aggressor, and for a trade embargo against that country.

China's action indicated, first, her desire to help Pakistan, at a time when help was most needed and, second, her unwillingness to countenance India's unfair attitude towards her smaller neighbour. Pakistan's action on its part was the earliest indication of this country's determination not to allow her relations with China to be dictated by the policies of the Anglo-American bloc.

Since then, the attitude of both countries has remained more or less constant in their mutual dealings, making efforts to develop their relations to mutual advantage without allowing different ideologies, big power alignments or any border problems (of which there had been none despite the border remaining undemarcated for a long time), to come between them in recent years. Under President Ayub's leadership, there has been a further strengthening of friendship and a new cordiality between the two countries. Leaders of both have earnestly declared that their friendship is not prompted by expediency. The border has been settled and demarcated amicably. Pakistan has supported China's admission to the United Nations, and has made efforts to remove the misunderstanding about that country in the West, especially in the U.S.A. China on its part has fully supported Pakistan's just stand on Kashmir and extended to this country its support during Indian aggression in September 1965. Economic and cultural co-operation between the two countries has been greatly stepped up.

Pakistan's Defence Alliances

Unlike certain other countries, China never entertained any misgivings about Pakistan on account of her membership of her defence alliances, Baghdad Pact (later CENTO) and SEATO. Addressing the political committee of the 29th Afro-Asian nations' Bandung Conference (April 1955) the Chinese Prime Minister said that he had been told by the Pakistan Prime Minister that—although Pakistan was a party to a military treaty, Pakistan was not against China.

> Pakistan had no fear that China would commit aggression against her... The Prime Minister of Pakistan gave further assurance that if the United States should take aggressive action under the military treaty or if the United States launched global war, Pakistan would not be involved in it...just as it was not involved in the Korean War.

The following year the Chinese Premier repeated that the assurances given by Pakistan had removed China's misunderstandings about Pakistan's membership of the SEATO and that the Treaty was no bar to Sino-Pakistan friendship.

In the West, the question was whether Pakistan's friendship for China was compatible with her membership of SEATO, received the answer that Pakistan joined the pact because it was meant to be a purely *defensive* arrangement against aggression from *any* quarter. It did not demand positive hostility against any country or group of countries. Secondly, even if SEATO were meant only to contain China, an equally good way of doing so was to demarcate boundaries with her, and generally to live in peace and friendship with her.

China's Admission to the UN

Pakistan has consistently favoured China's admission to the UN. She has argued that it is ridiculous to ignore a vast reality like the existence of the People's Republic of China. Secondly, without China as a party, discussions on issues of world-wide importance such as nuclear disarmament, not to mention others, become unreal and ineffective.

In November 1966, Pakistan with nine other nations sponsored

a resolution in the UN General Assembly calling for the restoration of the rights of the People's Republic China in the United Nations and its associated organisations and the expulsion of Chiang Kai-Shek's representative. The resolution said that this was essential both for the protection of the UN Charter and the cause the United Nations must serve under the Charter. Pakistan opposed the two-China theory (which would give representation both to Taiwan and Peking), and also strongly opposed the UN resolution that admission of China was an 'important question' and would require an affirmative vote of at least two-thirds of the members. It was a pity, said the Pakistani delegate, that 'this essentially uncomplicated question has been subjected to so much confusion, surrounded by so many irrelevancies, distorted by so much artifices—a great tragedy for mankind'. In the UNESCO General Assembly debate in October 1966, the Pakistani delegate said: "This omission (of China) not only perpetuates but also enhances the dangers and inequities inherent in a situation which denies about a fifth of the world its rightful place in the comity of nations. We are convinced that unless this vacuum is filled, the representative character of the United Nations and its organisations will remain imperfect and all its endeavours for world peace will consequently be inadequate and ineffective".

Boundary Agreement

Pakistan first informally sounded the Chinese Government, and then, in March 1961, sent a diplomatic Note suggesting demarcation of the boundary of China's Sinkiang and the contiguous areas, the defence of which was the responsibility of Pakistan. The Chinese Government agreed to this, and after four months of discussion and negotiations an agreement setting forth in detail the description of the boundary alignment was signed. It was agreed by both the parties that after the Kashmir dispute was settled between India and Pakistan the sovereign authority concerned willl reopen negotiations with China so as to sign a formal boundary agreement to replace the present one. If the soverign authority was Pakistan, then the provisions of the present agreement would hold good.

As a result of this Agreement, Pakistan ceded no territory to China, as the Indian Government incomprehensibly alleged. On the contrary Pakistan actually gained 750 square miles of territory that had hitherto been controlled by China.

Kashmir Dispute

China never supported India on the Kashmir dispute, not even when the relations between China and India were most cordial. During his visit to India in 1956, Mr. Chou En-Lai was repeatedly pressed by newspapers correspondents for his view on Kashmir in the light of Soviet leaders statement of the previous year that Kashmir was a part of India. The Chinese Premier did not accept the Soviet line but said instead that Kashmir dispute did exist and that it should be settled peacefully by negotiations. When he went on to Ceylon the joint communique issued by him and the Ceylonese Prime Minister appealed

to the Prime Ministers of India and Pakistan to seek a peaceful settlement of the Kashmir dispute through direct negotiations. Again, in 1960, when Chinese and Indian delegations met in New Delhi to draw up an agenda for discussing the demarcation of the Sino-Indian border, the Indian delegation included in the agenda, the border between Sinkiang and Kashmir, west of the Karakoram Pass. The Chinese delegation objected that since this area was not under the *defacto* or *de jure* control of India, China could not discuss it. The item had to be dropped.

More recently, the Chinese leaders have repeatedly, and in very clear terms, called for a settlement of the dispute in accordance with the wishes of the people of Kashmir, as pledged to them by both India and Pakistan.

Indian Aggression

China was one of the first countries to come out openly and categorically in condemnation of India's aggression on Pakistan in September 1965. China offered to give Pakistan all assistance in its just struggle. This consistent support from a great power was a source of great encouragement to Pakistan. Later the President and Foreign Minister of China declared that if again there is any aggression against Pakistan, China would stand by her.

Economic Relations

As noted, China immediately stepped into the place of India when that country stopped trade with Pakistan expecting that either Pakistan would be forced to devalue her rupee now, or would face an economic crisis, Pakistan's trade relations with China have continued to be very favourable to this country. In 1952, a peak year for Pakistan's export, the export to China were valued at 83.8 million against imports from that country of only $2.2 million. These exports formed 15.7 per cent of the total exports of Pakistan, which is to say second only to the United Kingdom. In subsequent years, the volume has not been so substantial but barring a few exceptions, the balance of trade has throughout remained appreciably in favour of Pakistan.

In January 1963, the two countries signed the first formal Sino-Pakistan trade agreement providing for 'the most favoured nation treatment' in respect of trade and shipping. The agreement envisaged that Pakistan would import metals, steel products, coal, cement, machinery, chemicals raw material and cereals, while China would import jute, cotton, textiles, sports goods, hides and skins. The agreement also provided for greatly stepping up the Sino-Pakistan trade.

China has offered an interest-free loan to Pakistan for setting up a heavy engineering complex. The loan is for $60 million repayable in 20 years.

China has also offered to supply 100,000 tons of rice on barter to tide over the East Pakistan crises due to floods in mid-1966.

In 1956, the Governor of Sinkiang had suggested to a visit-

ing delegation of Pakistani editors that there should be a direct air-service between China and West Pakistan *via* Sinkiang to cut the then flying time by 18 hours. A jetliner would cover the distance between Kashgar and Rawalpindi in less than an hour's time. Besides, with such a link, the need for flying through India and Hong Kong in order to get to Peking would be obviated. This suggestion was examined at that time but no action was taken.

A beginning was made in August 1963, when Pakistan and China signed an agreement for the operation of a direct commercial air service between the two countries. The service started on 29 April, 1964.

Cultural Exchanges

A Cultural Agreement between the two countries envisages the exchange of educationists, scientists, scholars, technical experts and artists. So far 27 delegations from Pakistan have visited China, while 14 delegations from China have visited Pakistan.

In addition to this, there have been several exchanges of other delegations. During 1966, the delegations that went from Pakistan included a 32-member Pakistan cultural troupe which gave performances in various big cities in China, a 7-member delegation of the Pakistan Writers' Guild went on a good-will visit for three weeks, a 5-member delegation of trade unionists which participated in the May Day celebrations of the People's Republic of China, a 7-member weight-lifting team which participated in the weight-lifting meet of GANEFO held in Peking from 20th to 24th May 1966, a delegation of writers which attended the emergency meeting of the Bureau of Afro-Asian Writers held in Peking from 27th June to 9th July, 1966, a 4-member delegation of scientists which participated in a Seminar on physics held in Peking during July/August 1966, a 15-member parliamentary delegation led by the Speaker of the National Assembly from 6th to 20 August 1966, and a number of other delegations.

Free Visa

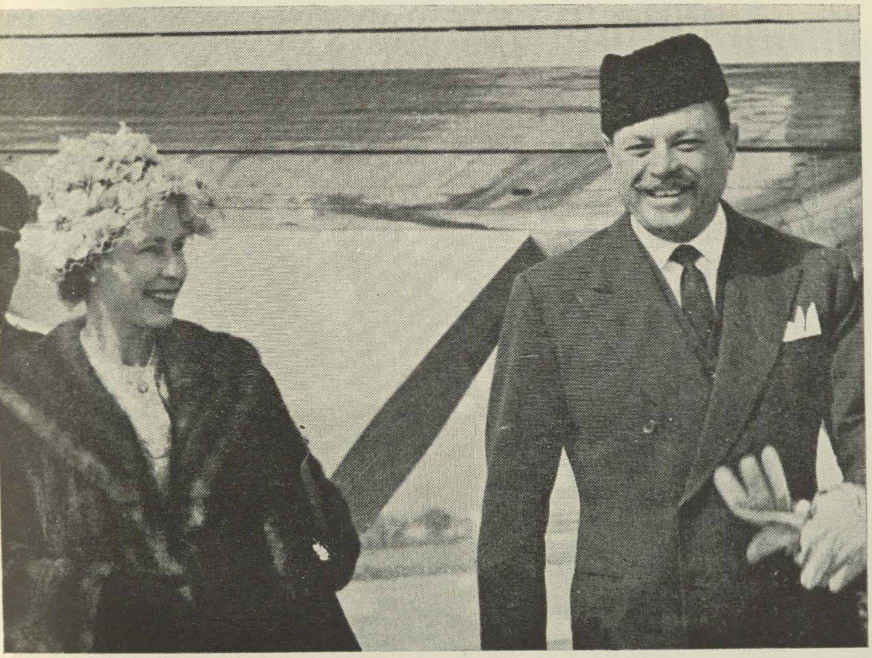
According to an agreeemnt between the two countries visas are issued free by each country to the nationals of the other.

THE USSR

The USSR is a close geographical neighhour of Pakistan, being separated from the north-west frontier of West Pakistan by a tongue of Afghan territory varying in width from about 10 miles to 50 miles. After Pakistan's independence, that country took an early interest in this country. Diplomatic relations were established in 1948. In 1949, the Prime Minister of Pakistan was invited to visit Moscow by the Soviet Government, but this visit did not materialise.

The early relations of the two countries were almost exclusively confined to the econcmic field. A Soviet trade mission visited Karachi in 1949, but at that time no agreement could be reached. In 1952, during the Korean war, a barter contract was signed between the two countries for the exchange of Soviet wheat for Pakistan Jute.

While some trade and cultural contract were maintained, consi-



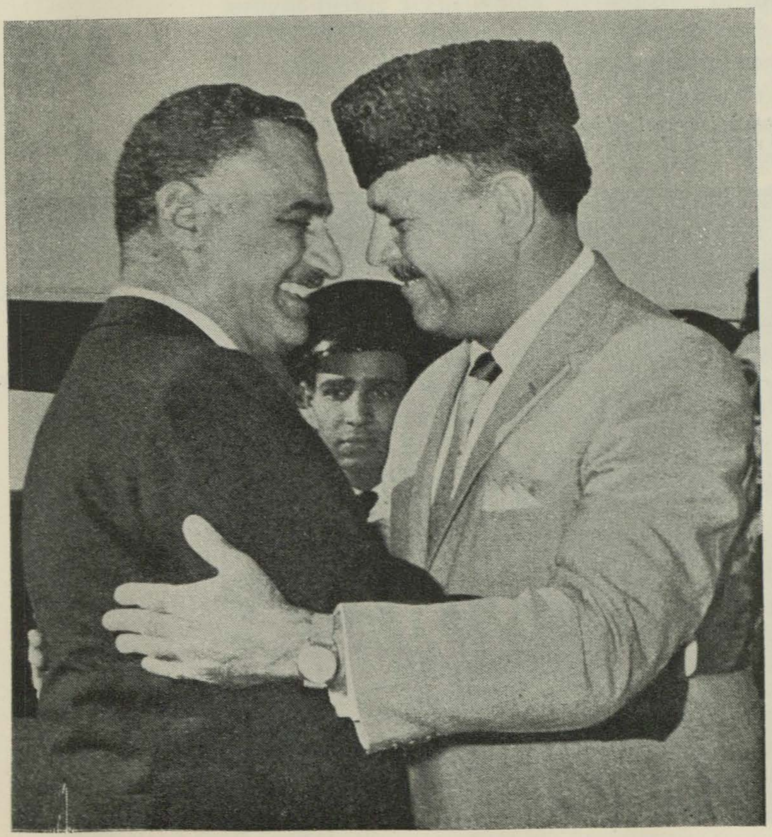
President Mohammad Ayub Khan welcoming Queen Elizabeth at Chaklala Airport on February 10, 1961.

President Ayub being received by Marshal Tito, President of Yugoslavia, on his State visit to Belgrade on January 13, 1961.





President Ayub being received by Premier Kosygin on arrival at Tashkent on January 3, 1966.



President Ayub and President Nasser of U.A.R. embracing each other at Cairo Airport on November 5, 1960.

derable tension was caused between the two countries during the later fifties. On the Soviet side, it was due to Pakistan's alliance with the West, in SEATO and the Baghdad Pact (now CENTO) and, on Pakistan's side, on account of Soviet Union's resultant partisanship for India and Afghanistan against Pakistan.

The Soviet Union strongly protested to Pakistan on its joining the Baghdad Pact which, according to her, was directed against the Soviet Union. In reply, Pakistan explained that her understanding was that the pact was a purely defensive arrangement directed only against aggression, from wherever it came.

Not convinced, the Soviet retaliation came almost immediately when, during a visit to India and Afghanistan in December 1955, the Soviet leaders declared without any reservation that Jammu and Kashmir belonged to India, and that Afghanistan was justified in its claim of Pakistani territory in the north-west. After that, in the UN debates on Kashmir, Soviet support to India was categorical. She even used the power of veto to foreclose discussions.

Meanwhile contacts with Pakistan in the economic and cultural sphere were, however, maintained. A trade agreement was concluded in 1956, which was of a general good will type and provided for settlement of balances in Pakistan currency. The USSR also appointed a trade representative in Karachi and opened a show-room there. A Pakistan trade delegation visited the Soviet Union in 1957 and the following years that country supplied to Pakistan pig iron, coal, billets and newsprints.

Recent years have seen a considerable change in Pakistan-Soviet relations. This has been due mainly to the allaying of Soviet suspicions about Pakistan; and secondly, to a better realisation of Pakistan under new leadership, of the geo-political situation and the need, as such, to be on friendly terms with all neighbours.

The change was first reflected in the economic sphere, where co-operation was stepped up. In March 1961, the two countries signed a $30 million loan agreement for co-operation in the search for oil in Pakistan. Following this, a five-year contract was signed for the services of Soviet experts for oil and gas exploration.

In 1963, an air agreement was concluded whereby the Pakistan International Airlines began operating its services to London *via* Moscow and Frankfurt, and the Aeroflot service of the Soviet Union was extended to Karachi *via* Kabul.

The turning point in Pakistan-Soviet relations was the visit of President Ayub Khan to the Soviet Union in April 1965. He held frank talks with the Soviet leaders which led to a better understanding of each others' position. The joint communique disclosed a wide area of agreement between the two countries. The visit was also marked by the signing of a new trade agreement and a credit for Pakistan of $30 million.

The resultant shift in Soviet policy had been most visible in her attitude towards Indo-Pakistan disputes. During the Rann of Kutch

crisis in April 1965, the Soviet Union took pains to stand "neutral". Again a few months later she demonstrated her 'neutrality' when Indian agression led to a full size Indo-Pakistan conflict.

The high point of Soviet Union's interest in Indo-Pakistan disputes was reached when at the time of Indo-Pakistan conflict she successfully pressed her good offices for bringing about a meeting between the leaders of India and Pakistan. The meeting that took place at Tashkent in January 1966, led to the signing of the Tashkent Declaration. Apart from its impact on Indo-Pakistan Soviet relations it also served to consolidate Pakistan-Soviet relations.

In readily honouring the Soviet initiative, Pakistan proved that that country could serve the interests of India and Pakistan only if she ceased to adopt a partisan attitude in their disputes, and took an objective view.

The dimensions of relationship between Pakistan and the Soviet Union have continued to grow. Cultural exchanges have been stepped up and are regulated by annual programmes. The target for trade envisaged for 1967 has been exceeded. Soviet assistance for Pakistan's Third Five-Year Plan has been stepped up. In September 1966, following an exchange of visits by economic and technical delegations, the Soviet Union agreed to provide aid exceeding $80 million. High level visits have been stepped up from both sides and a growing number of Pakistani students are proceeding to the Soviet Union for higher studies.

The Soviet leaders are due to pay a return visit to Pakistan during 1967.

Burma

Pakistan has a common frontier with Burma. The relations between the two countries have been friendly. Pakistan contributed £500,000 to the Commonwealth Fund of £6 million raised for that country in 1949. A treaty of friendship was signed between the two countries in 1952, and in the following year, a team of financial experts from Pakistan went to advise the other, at Burma's request.

The two countries are parties to the Colombo Plan, and later were co-hosts to the 29 African nation Bandung Conference.

General Ne Win, then Prime Minister of Burma, first visited Pakistan in 1959. In pursuance of his talks with the President of Pakistan, a Pakistan-Burma Border Commission was set up. This Commission completed its task in May 1960, resolving almost all border problems between the two countries. Later in January 1964, an agreement was reached proposing that the fluctuating boundary between the two countries in the Naaf River should be formed into a fixed boundary. This was subsequently done. The agreement was signed at Rawalpindi in May 1966, by President Mohammad Ayub Khan and General Ne Win.

In 1961, the President of Pakistan visited Burma and held talks to promote better economic co-operation and to strengthen ties of friendship. It was agreed between the two leaders that frequent

meetings should be held to promote and maintain understanding. Later it was agreed that Pakistan and Burma should conclude an extradition treaty. The question of Arakan Muslims was also given careful thought and Burma agreed to give sympathetic consideration to the problems of the Arakanese Muslims. A financial agreement was also signed.

After nationalisation of all business in Burma, Pakistan assisted Pakistan nationals in that country to return to Pakistan. The question of repatriation and compensation was partially resolved, while outstanding questions are being pursued with the Burmese government.

Pakistan has been offering facilities to Burmese army personnel for training in military institutions in Pakistan. Burmese students also come for higher education under a cultural scholarship scheme.

The trade mainly consists of rice from Burma and cotton from Pakistan. During his second visit to Pakistan in February 1965, now as President ot his country, General Ne Win emphasised the need and scope for expansion of mutual trade.

Both countries have rendered help to each other at times of natural calamities, like floods.

Ceylon

Although the distance between Ceylon and each of the wings of Pakistan is nearly, 1,500 miles, yet, in an important way, Ceylon is among the neighbours of Pakistan. On independence, Pakistan did not receive any of the off-shore islands of the sub-continent. Therefore, communication between the two wings of the country, apart from the air journey, lies through 3,000 miles of sea *via* Ceylon. All ships carrying passengers or cargo from one wing of Pakistan to the other have to call at Ceylonese ports. Thus there is constant physical contact.

Secondly, Ceylon, like Pakistan, has virtually been a part of the same sub-continent. She had been governed by the British, so that there has been a period of common history, including a common struggle for freedom against foreign rule and certain commonly inherited traditions and institutions.

Pakistan and Ceylon are also partners in the Commonwealth. They are parties to the Colombo Plan, which took its name from the capital of Ceylon where the Plan was evolved in 1950. They cooperated closely at the first Afro-Asian conference in Bandung in 1955.

In pursuance of the policy of establishing cordial relations with all neighbouring countries, the President of Pakistan paid a state visit to Ceylon in December 1963. As a result of discussions between the leaders of the two countries, a common outlook was discovered on various current world problems.

Trade between the two countries has been considerably expanded. At present it cosists of fish, jute and cotton goods. Pakistan has been giving material assistance whenever and in whatever measure she could in response to requests from Ceylon. These have included supply of wheat, livestock, cloth and medicines. Cultural scholar-

ships, exchange of sport teams and donation of books, have provided some other fields of co-operation.

Ceylon has taken an interest in the settlement of the Kashmir dispute. It has favoured a settlement on the basis of the United Nations resolution which calls for self-determination by the Kashmiri people. Ceylon offered air facilities to Pakistan during the war emergency when overflights across Indian territory were suspended.

MUSLIM STATES

Pakistan is a declared Islamic Republic. Her relations with other Muslim countries, therefore, receive special emphasis. It is also laid down as a directive principle in the Constitution of the country that—"The bonds of unity amongst Muslim countries should be preserved and strengthened..."

Situated as Pakistan is with two wings touching the eastern and western parts of the Islamic world, she is a strong link in the chain of Islamic unity. Common faith and cultural heritage incline her towards the Muslim world and she supports the just cause of the Arabs over Palestine, Turkish Cypriots in Cyprus, and Eritrean Muslims in Ethiopia.

Pakistan made sincere efforts to develop common bonds with the Muslim states of the world. In February 1949, she called a world Muslim conference. In November of the same year, an International Economic Conference of Muslim states was held in Pakistan. The aim of this organisation was to foster economic same year, an International Economic Conference of Islam was held in Pakistan. The aim of this organisation was to foster economic relations between countries of the Middle East. The official charter of the conference was recognized by the UN. Its next meeting was held the following year in Tehran, with Pakistan again taking the major initiative.

At the United Nations, Pakistan has consistently supported the causes of the Muslim countries.

RCD COUNTRIES

It is this same faternal feeling which has brought Pakistan, Iran and Turkey—two other Muslim countries—into an arrangement of mutual understanding and common benefit in the economic, commercial and cultural fields. This association which was formed in 1964, is well-known as the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD). About this organisation President Ayub says:

> "We are partners in the Regional Co-operation for Development Agreement which is in its essence an alliance for progress and are engaged in a common search for speeding up the economic advancement and social progress of our peoples in order to give value and meaning to our political independence.
>
> "Within the framework of the RCD we are pooling our experience and skills in tackling common problems; we are engaged in floating joint economic ventures and are mapping out areas where economics

of scale dictate the necessity of the establishment of single units on an integrated basis for meeting the market requirements of the three countries.''

Iran

Pakistan's close relations with Iran derive from several factors. The two countries have a common religion; geographically, they are neighbours; culturally, Pakistan, especially its western wing, has drawn heavily on Iran, in language, literature, and customs. There is, therefore, considerable warmth in the relations of the two countries, both at the government level and among the people. Each country has supported the other's major causes without reservation.

When in the early fifties, the Government of Iran nationalised its oil industry, terminating the association of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company, Pakistan upheld the sovereign right of Iran to do so. On Jammu and Kashmir, Iran has given full support to Pakistan's demand for self-determination of the people of that State. At the time of Indian aggression on Pakistan in September 1965, Iran gave valuable moral and material support to Pakistan, both at government and popular levels.

The historic Regional Co-operation for Development Agreement is one notable outcome of this close friendship. Several joint development projects and other co-operative efforts in numerous fields are being planned under this Agreement. Both countries are also partners in the Central Treaty Organisation.

The boundary between the two countries had remained unsettled during the British rule. A few years ago, an agreement on its alignment was concluded between Iran and Pakistan and the boundary was demarcated by their experts.

Culturally so close to each other, there have been very fruitful cultural exchanges between them.

The Shahinshah of Iran was personally instrumental in bringing about a conciliation between Afghanistan and Pakistan in 1962 and then in 1966, between Pakistan and Malaysia.

There have been frequent exchanges of visits between the Heads of State. The Shahinshah was the first Head of State to visit Pakistan after the latters' independence. President Ayub, in his first visit to Iran, told the Iranian Senate: ''Historically, we have been one nation in the past, geographically we have a common boundary, ethnologically we are of the same stock. It is no wonder therefore that the relationship between our two countries is a model of friendship''.

Turkey

As mentioned earlier, Turkey had claimed the special allegiance of the Muslims of this sub-continent when she was the seat of Muslim *Khilafat*. It were the same Muslims who carried on a country wide compaign to influence British policy in relation to Turkey. So that on Pakistan's emergence as an independent state, the two countries did not find it necessary to establish rapport anew. The bond was ready to assume its proper new shape.

The extent of co-operation between the two countries has been very wide. In trade, they give each other the most favoured nation treatment. A treaty of friendship was signed in 1951, a cultural agreement in 1953, an agreement for friendly co-operation in 1954, and a trade agreement in 1964.

Pakistan's support to Turkey on the question of Cyprus is categorical, as is Turkey's on Kashmir. When the question was referred to the United Nations General Assembly in 1954 and 1955 the Pakistan delegation supported the historical and legal claims of Turkey. Later, when troubles began in 1963, Pakistan demanded that the agreements of 1960, on independence of Cyprus, which brought about the settlement of the problem, should be respected. This agreement recognised the right of Turkey to intervene in the event of a violation of the constitution of Cyprus.

Pakistan's Foreign Minister said in 1963: "We are with Turkey in her moment of crisis and whatever co-operation may be needed from Pakistan will be extended in full measure". Very similar sentiments were expressed by Turkey in Pakistan's moment of crisis in September 1965, and Turkey extended valuable moral, material and diplomatic support to Pakistan during the Indo-Pakistan war.

There has been a frequent exchange of visits between the Heads of State of the two countries and the last occasion was the visit of Turkish President to Pakistan in October 1966.

ARAB COUNTRIES

Pakistan has sought to develop her relations with all Arab countries on a bilateral basis.

Pakistan's policy towards the Arab world is characterised by its support for all measures unanimously adopted by the Arab States. She welcomes all manifestations of Arab unity and solidarity and acclaims the economic and social achievements of Arab people. She extends complete support to any movement for greater political, economic and cultural co-operation among the Arab countries in the interest of their collective security and welfare which, she thinks, contributes to solidarity among the Muslim states and to greater unity among the Afro-Asian countries.

Pakistan extended full and unqualified support to the Arabs while the three Arab states, Syria, Jordan and the UAR were attacked by Israel in June 1967, condemned Israeli aggression and, after the war, called upon Israel to vacate immediately the occupied Arab territories, including the old city of Jerusalem. In fact, Pakistan's resolution in the UN calling on Israel to rescind all measures taken for annexation of the holy city of Jerusalem was the only positive outcome of the UN debate on the Middle East issues. Pakistan's role in the UN was acclaimed throughout the Arab world. Pakistan also gave material aid to the Arab countries.

The brotherly feelings towards the Arab countries have duly been reciprocated and Pakistan now holds a special position of good-will and friendship and nothing stands in the way of mutual understanding

between them.

United Arab Republic

The United Arab Republic plays a pre-eminent role in the affairs of the Arab world. For this reason and also because of her own Islamic orientation, Pakistan has always attached importance to the promotion of friendly relations with that country.

However, Pakistan-United Arab Republic relations have from time to time been subject to some stress.

Pakistan extended its support to the Egyptian struggle against imperialism. It backed the Egyptian demand for the evacuation of British occupation forces from the Suez Canal and for the negotiation of a new settlement over the problem of the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. Pakistan was instrumental in promoting the resumption of negotiations between Egypt and the United Kingdom which had reached a deadlock.

President Gamal Abdel Nasser chose non-alignment between the two power blocs as the basis of his foreign policy, while Pakistan, concluded an agreement with the United States for military aid in 1954, joined SEATO the same year and in 1955 became a member of the Baghdad Pact in quest of security from the threat of Indian aggression.

Fears were expressed in the Arab world that Pakistan's policy of support for the Arabs of Palestine in particular, and Arab liberation movements in general, would no longer be sustained, but Pakistan soon demonstrated that these fears were unfounded. Membership of the Baghdad Pact and SEATO did not inhibit Pakistan from pursuing its traditional policy of lending support to Arab aspirations for independence, dignity and unity. When President Nasser nationalised the Suez Canal Pakistan upheld the right of Egypt as a sovereign state to nationalise any undertaking within its territorial jurisdiction.

Pakistan's interest in maintaining freedom of navigation through the canal was direct and immediate. At the time of nationalisation, 56 per cent of Pakistan's exports and 49 per cent of its imports passed through that waterway. Nevertheless, Pakistan publicly stated that nationalisation was a justifiable act and directed its diplomacy to dissuading the British Government from resorting to armed action to reimpose international control.

At the London Conference convened on the initiative of Mr. Dulles, to consider the grave situation, Pakistan reaffirmed its position that nationalisation of the Suez Canal was in consonance with the sovereign prerogative of Egypt and that a peaceful solution of the Anglo-French dispute with Egypt should be found through negotiation. The Pakistan delegation also successfully pressed amendment to substantially modify the Western proposals. Pakistan was motivated by the need to avert an imminent threat of Anglo-French invasion by keeping open the door to a negotiated settlement with President Nasser and thereby to frustrate the aims of those Powers which were determined to serve an ultimatum on him. Pakistan uttered a warning against the violation of the Charter of the United Nations or any

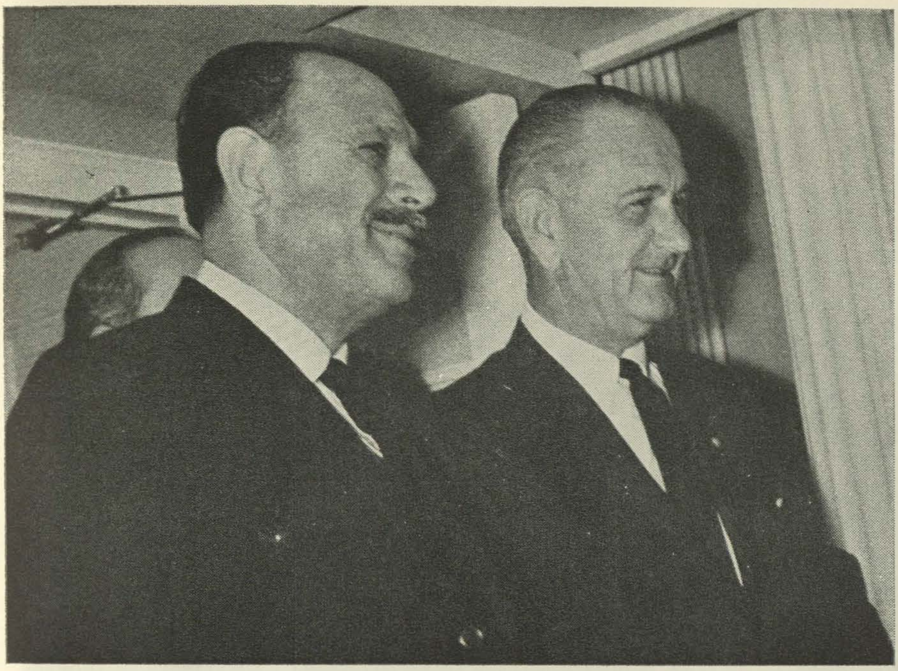
attempt to dictate terms to President Gamal Abdul Nasser. It opposed the proposal to set up a Suez Canal Users Association and suggested that the users might negotiate directly with Egypt. This stand of Pakistan and some other countries, prevented the establishment of the Users Association. When the tripartite aggression took place, the people of Pakistan rose as one man in condemnation of the action of Britian, France and Israel. For weeks, cities and towns all over Pakistan resounded with the denunciation of the three powers and with expression of sympathy, and support for the people of Egypt. In the United Nations, Pakistan was actively associated with every move to bring about a cease-fire, withdrawal of the invading forces and the despatch of a United Nations Emergency Force.

Despite all this, however, President Nasser was not entirely satisfied with the role of Pakistan in the first and second London Conferences. At the actual moment of Anglo-French-Israeli invasion of Egypt, President Nasser believed that Pakistan's support could have been more positive and forthright. This feeling led him to decline to let the Prime Minister of Pakistan visit Egypt or to agree to the inclusion of a Pakistan contingent in the United Nations Emergency Force. Attacks against Pakistan as a Baghdad Pact country were intensified.

With the overthrow of the monarchy in Iraq in July 1958, and the withdrawal of that country from membership of the Baghdad Pact, there was a noticeable improvement in the attitude of the United Arab Republic towards Pakistan. The improvement of relations was further accelerated when the UAR President visited Pakistan in 1960 and had useful discussions with President Ayub Khan. The President of Pakistan paid a return visit to the UAR, where he was given a warm and enthusiastic reception. His penetrating analysis of the ills of Muslim societies and his call for a progressive out look and modernistic approach to the problems confronting them made a deep impression throughout the Middle East.

In 1962 and 1963, there was some retrogression in the relations between the two countries. The United Arab Republic objected to the sale of rifles and ammunition by Pakistan to Saudi Arabia under an agreement made in December 1961, on the ground that these arms were being passed on to the royalist forces in Yemen who were fighting against the Republican regime and the UAR forces. The sale of arms to Saudi Arabia was a normal government-to-government transaction and the Saudi Government denied that it was supplying the royalists with Pakistani weapons. Nevertheless, Pakistan stopped the sale of weapons, in deference to the United Arab Republic's sentiments; and moreover, it had never been Pakistan's policy to take sides in inter-Arab disputes. At the same time Pakistan recognised the Republican regime in Yemen.

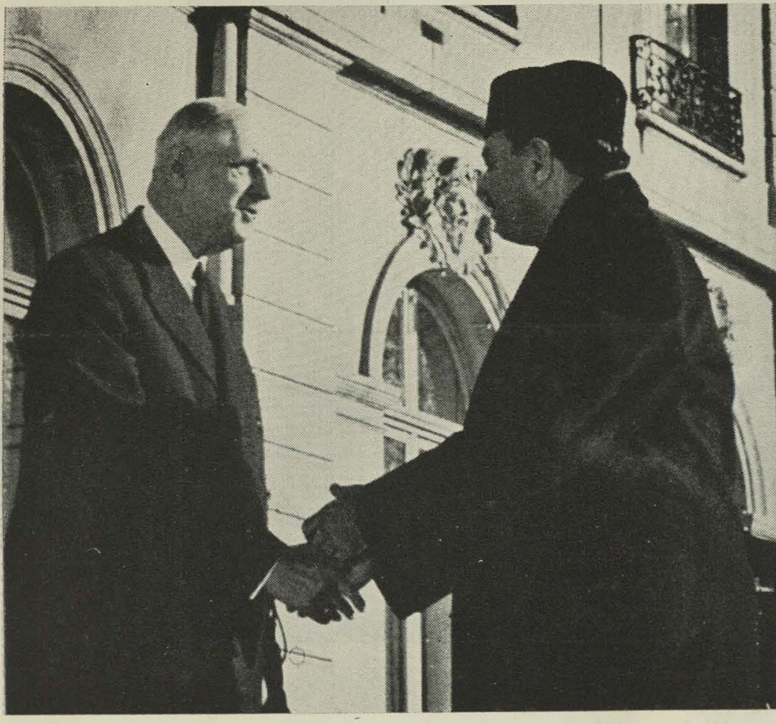
It was because of the fund of goodwill towards the UAR that there has been felt in Pakistan deep regret over the role of the United Arab Republic delegation in Security Council when the Kashmir disputes was discussed in the first half of 1962. More recently the



President Ayub with President Johnson. The two leaders met at White House, Washington on December 14, 1965.

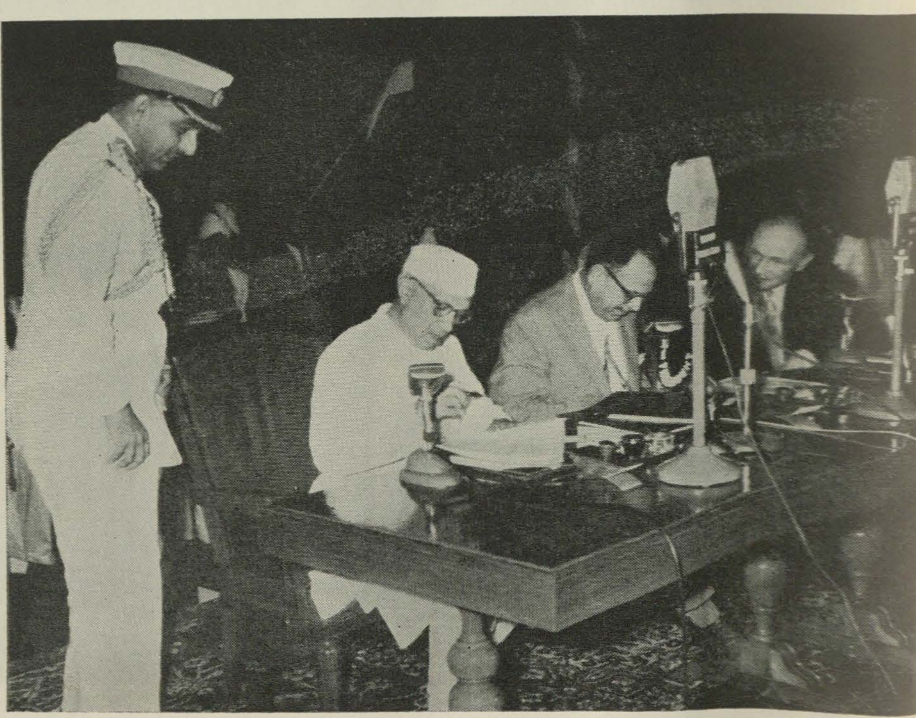
Regional Cooperation for Development: Shahinshah of Iran (left), the late President Cemel Gursel (centre) and President Ayub are seen here at the Summit Meeting on July 21, 1964, in Istanbul.





President Ayub is being greeted by President de Gaulle on the former's visit to France on November 29, 1966.

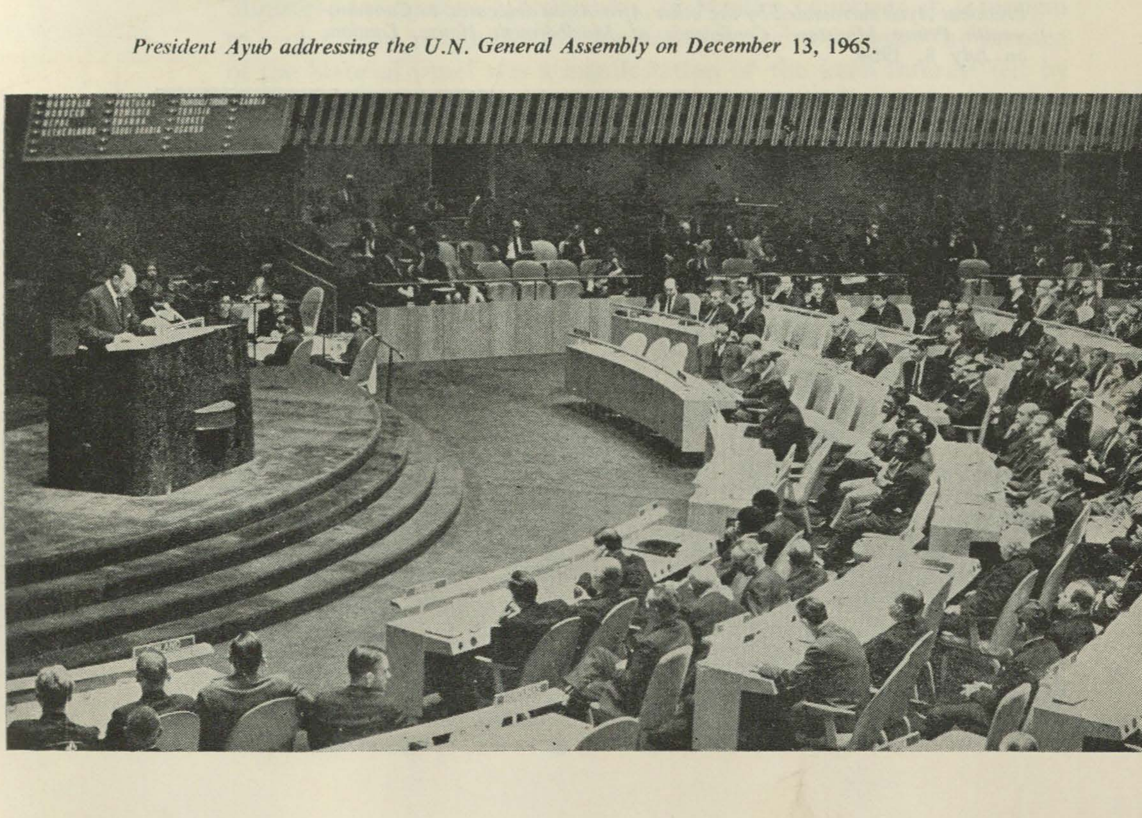
Signing of the Indus Water Treaty on September 19, 1960 in Karachi. Sitting from left are the late Premier Nehru, President Mohammad Ayub Khan and Mr. W.A.B. Iliff, Vice-President, World Bank.





By signing the Tashkent Declaration, Pakistan once again demonstrated her faith and belief in peaceful co-existence. Holding each other's hands are the late Indian Premier Shastri, President Ayub and Soviet Premier Kosygin, January 4, 1966.

President Ayub addressing the U.N. General Assembly on December 13, 1965.





President Ayub with H.E. Cevdet Sunay, President of Turkey, on his arrival at Chaklala Airport, Rawalpindi on October 7, 1966.

President Ayub surrounded by the other Afro-Asian delegates to Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference at Marlborough House, London, on July 8, 1964.



Indo-UAR agreeement made in 1964 for collaboration in the production of supersonic planes has aroused Pakistan's concern as it would facilitate acquisition by India of greater air offensive capacity. Nevertheless, Pakistan continues to seek closer understanding with the United Arab Republic.

During the Indo-Pakistan war, the United Arab Republic officially remained neutral and made no statement on the question of aggression by India against Pakistan. However, at the Casablanca Conference of Arab States in the third week of September 1965, the United Arab Republic subscribed to a resolution which in the context of a paragraph on self-determination, called for a settlement of the Indo-Pakistan differences in conformity with the principles and resolutions of the United Nations. Even this wording reflected a significant shift in the Fgyptian stand. The current relations between the two countries are cordial. The UAR Vice President's visit to Pakistan in December 1966, helped to strenghten further the ties between the two countries.

Jordan

Jordan as the custodian of the Masjidal Aqsa, has always occupied a place of affection in the hearts of Muslims of Pakistan and has attracted Pakistani pilgrims by the thousand. Pakistan's relations with Jordan have always been very cordial and a large measure of political co operation has existed between the two countries. The suggestion of Sir Mohammad Zafrullah Khan, while he was Pakistan's Foreign Minister, to convene a conference of Muslim countries at Jerusalem to evolve some positive policy for united action to counter the menace of the State of Israel was a manifestation of the keen interest felt by Pakistan for the welfare of Jordan.

In a joint Pakistan-Jordan communique issued after the Pakistan Prime Minister's visit to Jordan in August 1957, the two countries pledged themselves to co-operate with each other in pursuance of their common policies and interests. In April 1964, the people-to-people delegation led by Mr. Waiz Mohammad Yusuf of Kashmir visited Jordan where he was accorded a warm welcome. During its stay in Jordan, the delegation received the full support of the Jordanian Government to the right of self-determination of the people of Jammu and Kashmir.

During the Rann of Kutch crisis, and again in September 1965, when India invaded Pakistan, Jordan proved to be one of Pakistan's staunchest friends, and King Hussein went out of his way to be helpful and co-operative. Jordan strongly backed Pakistan in the UN Security Council and funds were collected for Pakistan's defence needs.

During his state visit to Jordan in November 1966, President Ayub strongly condemned the Israeli attack against Jordan which had coincided with the President's visit and assured King Hussain of Pakistan's full support.

The two countries have also forged cultural and trade links and the cultural agreement, signed in 1962, reaffirms the ancient links.

A trade Agreement between Pakistan and Jordan was signed in 1965. Jordan imports from Pakistan cotton, textiles, medical supplies and some other goods. In return, Pakistan imports phosphate from Jordan in large quantities. Some joint economic projects between Jordan and Pakistan are also under the consideration of the two governments.

Iraq

Pakistan's friendship and understanding with Iraq continued to develop over the years. When in 1958 Iraq opted out of the then Baghdad Pact, her friendship with Pakistan remained undisturbed. There has been an exchange of visits between the leaders of the two countries, while a cultural agreement was signed in July 1963. In August 1966, Pakistan rushed cholera vaccines to Iraq when an epidemic broke out.

The people, as well as the Government of Iraq, have publicly supported the right of self-determination of the people of Jammu and Kashmir.

Saudi Arabia

Pakistan's relations with Saudi Arabia have throughout been close and cordial and there have not been any differences or disputes between them.

The strength of the ties binding the two countries was demonstrated during the Indo-Pakistan war when Saudi Arabia gave Pakistan spontaneous moral and material help and assured Pakistan of support for the Kashmiri people's demand for their right of self-determination.

When Pakistan broke off diplomatic relations with Malaysia over the latter's hostile attitude to Pakistan during the Indian aggression in September 1965, Saudi Arabia agreed to look after her interests in Malaysia.

In the dispute between the United Kingdom and Saudi Arabia over the Buraimi Oasis, which had strained relation between the two countries for many years, Pakistan's sympathies were with Saudi Arabia. Pakistan also looked after Saudi interests in the United Kingdom, France and West Germany when diplomatic relations between Saudi Arabia and these countries were severed at the time of the Suez Crisis in 1956 and after West Germany's recognition of Israel in 1965.

Pakistan has also been endeavouring to assist Saudi Arabia in executing her development programme by providing technical personnel such as doctors and engineers to that country. At present there are about 1,900 Pakistani technicians working in Saudi Arabia. Recently a delegation from the Saudi Health Ministry visited Pakistan for recruiting medical personnel.

Besides providing technicians, Pakistan has arranged training facilities in various fields for Saudi Arabian nationals. It allocates 10 seats in her Medical Colleges for Saudi Arabian students. Similarly admissions are arranged for Saudi Arabian students in the engineering colleges.

Efforts are being made for strengthening Pakistan's relations

with Saudi Arabia in cultural, economic and commercial fields. A press delegation went from Pakistan in March-April 1966. An educational delegation from Saudi Arabia visited Pakistan in August/September 1966. A Saudi football team visited Pakistan in March 1967.

A trade delegation from Pakistan visited Saudi Arabia in June 1966, to explore the possibilities of increasing trade between the two countries. In October/November 1966, Pakistan's Minister of Industries and Natural Resources paid a visit to that country with a view to probing possibilities of joint oil exploration.

The cordial relations between Pakistan and Saudi Arabia have been strengthened from time to time by the visits of the Heads of States to each others' country. Thus the former King Saud visited Pakistan in 1954 and the Presidents of Pakistan visited Saudi Arabia in 1956 and 1960. King Faisal visited Pakistan in April 1966.

Syria

Damascus has been one of the important power centres of the Muslim world.

Pakistan's relations with Syria have always been cordial. When Syria joined the United Arab Republic, Pakistan, consistent with its policy of goodwill and sympathy towards the movement for Arab unity, extended its welcome to the Union. Later, when Syria decided to separate, Pakistan took a non-partisan stand but noted with satisfaction that Arab unity remained an important goal of Syrian policy.

Pakistan has always given full support to Syria against acts of aggression by Israel. Syria has strongly backed the Kashmiri people's right of self-determination.

There are cultural and air agreements between the two countries.

Lebanon

Historically, Lebanon has been a meeting place of the empires and civilizations of Asia and Europe. Contacts between Pakistan and Lebanon have greatly expanded in recent years with the introduction of direct air service. There are exchange visits by scholars and businessmen.

The Maghreb

Pakistan has fully and actively supported the struggles of the Maghreb countries, Libya, Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco for independence. First at the Bandung Conference and then for several years in the United Nations, she pressed for a consideration of their independence.

Pakistan co-sponsored resolution of the United Nations recognising the right of the Algerian people for self-determination, and inviting the French and the Algerians to enter into negotiations for ceasing hostilities and bringing about a peaceful settlement in accordance with the United Nations Charter. Later, she accorded formal recognition to the Provisional Government of Algeria. The relations between Pakistan and independent Algeria have always been very cordial.

Likewise, Pakistan gave full support to the Tunisian and Moroccan struggles until the two countries finally achieved independence in 1956. Since independence these countries have been very friendly towards Pakistan. During the Indian aggression against Pakistan in September 1965, they supported Pakistan's stand regarding the Kashmiri people's right of self-determination.

Trade and cultural agreements have been concluded between Pakistan and Tunisia. A trade agreement has been signed between Pakistan and Morocco. To Libya, Pakistan has been giving technical assistance in the form of technical personnel and a large number of Pakistani doctors are working there.

A trade delegation from Pakistan visited Libya, Algeria, Tunisia and Morocco in April 1966 to explore possibilities of further increasing mutual trade and commerce. Pakistan has decided to appoint a resident ambassador in Libya. This will keep the two countries in still closer touch with each other.

AFRO-ASIAN COUNTRIES

Pakistan has felt a strong sense of solidarity with the new emerging countries of Africa and Asia because there is a more or less common background of long colonial rule, and now there are similar social and economic problems, and the same aspirations for the future. The causes they have to fight for are or have been the causes of Pakistan also. Pakistan has, therefore, given full voice and support to the African-Asian points of view at the United Nations, the Commonwealth conferences and other international forums. On the Rhodesian issue, for instance, Pakistan has declared unqualified support for the African countries and taken such steps as banning the entry into Pakistan of all ships and aircrafts going to or coming from Rhodesia. Similarly, Pakistan expressed serious disappointment with the judgement of the International Court on South-West Africa.

One of the earliest gathering of the Afro-Asian countries was in Colombo in 1951 under the aegis of the Commonwealth. It initiated the growth of a common understanding and brought about very fruitful economic co-operation between some of the developing and some of the advanced countries.

A second meeting of far-reaching importance was held in 1955 at Bandung, Indonesia, where 29 countries from Africa and Asia assembled. Pakistan was one of the sponsors of this meeting. An appreciation of common problems and objectives was achieved; the possibilities were discussed for a common approach in international fields; and principles were evolved for such co-operation and coordinated action. The ten principles of international conduct evolved there have helped to create sympathy and understanding among these nations, and they have since been applied successfully by the Afro-Asian countries in their dealings with one another and with the

rest of the world.

Pakistan again played a leading role in the convening of the second Afro-Asian conference, which was due to be held in 1965 in Algeria. It was, however postponed first because of a sudden change of government in that country just a few days before the conference was to be held, and a second time because of the unpreparedness of certain participating countries.

In February 1965, a non-official organisation of Pakistan organised an Afro-Asian seminar on art, literature and culture. Delegations from 17 countries participated in it.

Pakistan participated in the Tri-Continental Conference organised by the Afro-Asian-Latin American People's Solidarity Organisation in Havana, Cuba in January 1966. In that Conference, Pakistan was elected a member of the Executive Secretariat of the Tri-Continental Organisation.

Pakistan realizes that it is necessary for the developing countries, which have much greater problems than the advanced countries, to co-ordinate their effort and co-operate with one another in the realisation of their objectives. The collective interest and joint effort could be built up for the benefit of all. It was with this end in view that Pakistan sponsored the Afro-Asian Conferences and canvassed the establishment of such organisations as the Regional Co-operation for Development (RCD) and the Indonesia-Pakistan Cultural and Economic Co-operation agreement. President Ayub once warned the Afro-Asian nations that although the struggle for freedom for most of them was over there was another and perhaps a harder struggle ahead, which was the struggle "to guard closely their hard-won freedom and protect it from the insidious threat of cultural and intellectual subservience". "Colonialism", he said, "has bequeathed to us a formidable legacy of problems which we must face and resolve". The storng desire of emerging nations to consolidate their independence and to find their true place in the scene cannot be realized unless there is a period of sustained peace.

Indonesia

Pakistan has had most fraternal relations with the Republic of Indonesia. When newly independent herself, she gave full support to Indonesia's independence struggle against the Dutch, by such measures as banning all Dutch flights over her territory which carried arms and reinforcements to Dutch troops. She supported Indonesia's stand against the Netherland, on the West Irian issue. Later Pakistani troops were entrusted with the supervision under the United Nation's flag of the transfer of sovereignty over West Irian.

During his first visit to this country, in 1950, the Indonesian President recalled, among other things, the co-operation extended to Indonesia by the Pakistan army:

> There are memories of solid comradeship between the Pakistan soldiery and our People's Army. The Pakistanis refused an order to fight their Indonesian brothers and shot their bullets in the air. We

> are also indebted to you for the services done by the volunteer Brigade who fought in our country. All these facts are not lightly forgotten in our country.

The two countries were the co-sponsors of the first African-Asian Conference at Bandung, and the second one which was due to be held in 1965.

Pakistan entered into several agreements with Indonesia, one of which was the Treaty of Friendship "to strengthen and perpetuate the bonds of brotherhood" and to "settle disputes peacefully in a spirit of brotherliness". The economic agreements were superseded by the Indonesia-Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation agreement signed in 1964, on the same pattern as the agreement between Pakistan, Iran and Turkey (RCD). Seven important fields of co-operation have so far been identified. There are to be joint ventures in industry, and co-operation in shipping, technical know-how, insurance, post and telecommunication, and cultural and information exchange.

There is a proposal for Pakistan to help set up a jute mill in Indonesia, and Pakistan has also offered credits. There has been an increased exchange of imports and exports. In the cultural field, centres are to be established in each country, and there are chairs of Indonesian and Pakistani studies in Pakistan and Indonesian universities respectively.

Indonesian Government and people gave unstinted and unequivocal support to Pakistan when it became the victim of Indian aggression in September 1965. On Kashmir, Indonesia has firmly stood behind Pakistan's demand for self-determination by the people of that state.

Malaysia

Malaysia is a near-neighbour of Pakistan on the eastern side. It is also a fellow-Muslim nation. The relations between the two countries had, therefore, been cordial and there had been continuous contact at various levels until diplomatic relations between the two countries were broken as a result of certain unfortunate remarks by the Malaysian Permanent Representative to the United Nations in the course of a debate on Indian aggression on Pakistan. Later, these relations were restored by the efforts of the Shah of Iran.

WESTERN COUNTRIES

United Kingdom

Pakistan's ties with the United Kingdom are cordial and friendly. There is a great deal of traffic between the two countries in all spheres —political, economic, commercial, scientific and educational. In addition, there is a large Pakistan community, numbering over 150,000 resident, in the United Kingdom. More Pakistani students go to Britain for higher studies on specialised training than to any other country.

As a Commonwealth partner, Britain has tried to resolve the disputes between Pakistan and India. About the Kashmir dispute, the leader of a recent British parliamentary delegation to Pakistan

declared that Britain has always been committed to the principle of self-determination, which applied to the people of Kashmir as much as to any other cases, including Rhodesia. Later, in a statement in the House of Commons he said: "If India wishes to enhance its reputation as a peaceful nation which it spent many years under Nehru building up, she should agree to accept the holding of a plebiscite and agree to accept in advance the result of it." On the Rann of Kutch dispute between Pakistan and India the British Government's role was more positive. It quickly mediated and pursuaded India to negotiate the dispute. Pakistan's President acknowledged the British Prime Minister's role with gratitude.

When India attacked Pakistan on September 6, 1965 the British Prime Minister, expressed his deep concern. In a statement he issued on hearing the news he said: "I am deeply concerned at the increasingly serious fighting now taking place between India and Pakistan and especially at the news that Indian forces have today attacked Pakistan territory across the international frontier in the Punjab. This is a distressing response to the resolution adopted by the Security Council on 4th September calling for a cease-fire. The dangerous situation now created may have the gravest consequences not only for India and Pakistan but also for the peace of the world..." However, Britain, in common with the United States, placed an embargo on sale of military equipment to Pakistan and India, which mainly worked to the detriment of Pakistan.

On the economic plane, relations between the two countries have been satisfactory. Among the member countries of the Colombo Plan Pakistan is the second largest recipient of technical assistance from the United Kingdom. Since the inception of the programme in 1959, upto June 1966, the latter provided to Pakistan 1,328 training facilities, 150 expert advisory services and equipment worth $3.7 million for educational and research purposes. The total amount provided by her in loans is about £100 million, exclusive of technical assistance and funds for the Indus Basin project.

Britain is the second largest trading partner of Pakistan. Pakistan's main exports are jute, cotton, hides and skins, and tea while Britain supplies manufactured goods, specially machinery. The possibility of Britain's entry into the Common Market is, therefore, of considerable concern to Pakistan and the terms on which Britain joins the ECM will be great relevance to Pakistan's future trade pattern.

Since the passage of Commonwealth Immigrants Act in 1962, the age-old traditional Commonwealth ties have been adversely affected. Furthermore, the proposed increase in tuition fees for overseas students in the United Kingdom is likely to restrict the number of Commonwealth students going there for higher studies. It is hoped that before a final decision is taken, the interests of Commonwealth students will be fully considered.

Despite the changing character of the Commonwealth, Pakistan continues to attach importance to her traditional ties with the member

countries. President Ayub Khan summed up Pakistan's attitude towards the Commonwealth in a television interview in London as follows:

> We have never doubted the value of the association with Commonwealth members, and we have been conscious of its limitations too.. To us it has been very clear that in the human, psychological and also developmental field, the Commonwealth is an asset. We would like it to be much effective and much more productive of results in the political field, and even in the economic field, but we must also be realists and recognise its limitations.

Pakistan has been participating in all the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' and Presidents' Conferences. In the September 1966 conference Pakistan shared the view of the African members of the Commonwealth that the present racialist Rhodesian government had to be brought down and that the British Government should use force, if necessary. Pakistan imposed a voluntary ban on all trade with Rhodesia.

In response to a long standing invitation from Her Majesty the Queen, the President of Pakistan paid a very successful State visit to the United Kingdom from 17th to 28th November 1966.

France

Pakistan has cordial relations with France. In order to further cement these relations the President of Pakistan paid an official visit to that country in September 1962. He visited again on 29th to 30th November 1966. On both occasions, he held long talks with General de Gaulle. The President of France said there was no problem on which Pakistan and France had any disagreement and President de Gaulle showed full awareness of the importance of the Kashmir problem. The French Government also evinced keen interest in Pakistan's economic projects and expressed willingness to extend greater co-operation for their successful implementation.

Economic collaboration between France and Pakistan has in fact increased over the last few years. The balance of trade continues to be favourable to Pakistan. In 1966, Pakistan's export to France were valued at 148.92 million francs and imports to 67.08 million francs. About 70 per cent of Pakistan's exports consist of raw jute. The Commerce Minister paid a visit to France in May 1966, for discussions with the French Government. France has been providing Pakistan with experts in technical fields and also with training facilities for Pakistanis. A cultural and technical co-operation agreement between the two countries is under negotiation.

West Germany

West Germany is the largest aid-giving country in the aid-to-Pakistan Consortium after the United States. West German aid pledged to Pakistan during 1965-66 was DM 152.5 million. In trade, Pakistan has an adverse balance with that country. In the period January/November 1966, she exported goods worth DM 112.7 million against imports worth DM 351.2 million. Export of jute accounted for DM 57.7 million.

Economic collaboration with West Germany has continued to

President Ayub shaking hands with His Imperial Majesty, the Shahinshah of Iran at the Mehrabad Airport on July 23, 1964.



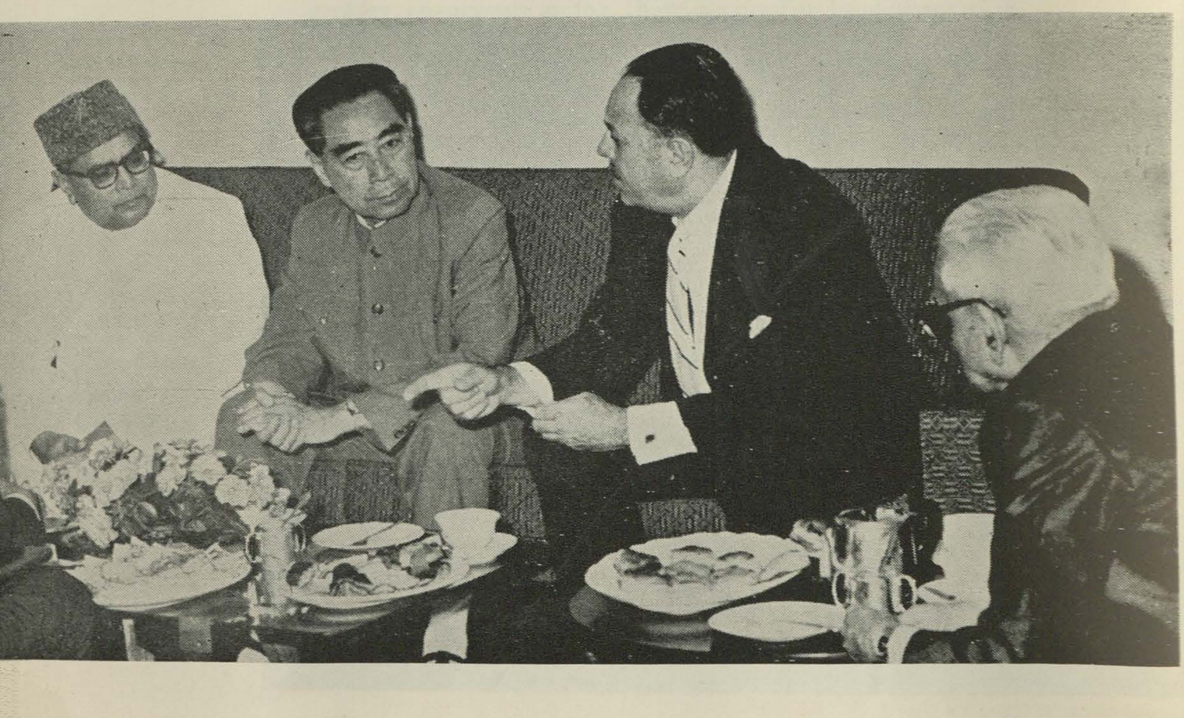
President Ayub with Mr. Abdus Salam Mohammad Arif, the President of Iraq, during latter's visit to Rawalpindi on March 22, 1964.





President Mohammad Ayub Khan being received in Peking by Chairman Mao Tse-Tung on March 4, 1965.

President Mohammad Ayub Khan talking to Mr. Chou En-Lai, Premier of the State Council of the People's Republic of China, at a reception given by the President in his honour at Hotel Shahrazad, Islamabad on June 29, 1966. Others seen in the picture are Mr. Abdul Jabbar Khan, Speaker, National Assembly on the left and Khwaja Shahabuddin, Minister for Information and Broadcasting (extreme right).



develop. Besides financial assistance for development projects the German Government have provided scholarships and fellowships for technical training and sent technical experts to Pakistan from time to time. In May 1966, an agreement was signed between them for co-operation in the field of information media, providing *inter alia* for the joint establishment at Rawalpindi of a Training Centre for television specialists. The present TV station at Rawalpindi is a part of German assistance.

President Ayub Khan held useful discussions with the ex-Chancellor Erhard and President Leubke on matters of mutual interest during his visit to Germany in December 1965. Pakistan's Commerce minister went to West Germany in May 1966, in connection with a project for the establishment of an integrated steel plant at Karachi.

Italy

Italy's interest in the economic development of Pakistan has been growing steadily and the pledge of $30 million for 1966-67 is the highest ever made by her to Pakistan. Since 1962, Italy has pledged in aid a total of over $36½ million. A cultural agreement and a convention on the avoidance of double taxation and on the joint recognition of tonnage certificates of merchant ships have been proposed by Pakistan and are under consideration of the Italian Government.

United States

Pakistan's relations with the United States go back to the first year of Pakistan's independence. The United States have been the largest contributor to Pakistan's developmental needs and have to date given over $2,000 million as economic, technical and other assistance to Pakistan.

Cultural and educational contacts between the two countries have been in existence since the very early days of their relations.

The United States is also an important trading partner, the volume of trade between the two countries, imports and exports, flowing at approximately $250 million per annum. There is a 10-year Treaty of Friendship with the United States signed in 1959, whereunder the United States industrial and commercial interests have been guaranteed most-favoured-nation treatment.

During the years 1954-59, Pakistan and the United States became associated with each other through the Mutual Defence Assistance Agreement signed in May 1954. Membership of the SEATO and the Baghdad Pact followed later. In May 1959, they signed a bilateral Agreement of Co-operation under which the United States undertook to adopt appropriate measure, including the use of armed forces, in the event of aggression against Pakistan.

Following the Sino-Indian border clashes in 1962 the United States proceeded to arm India on a scale which to Pakistan seemed totally unjustified. It also disturbed the balance of power to Pakistan's disadvantage. This military assistance programme to India, began as an emergency measure, was later put on a continuing basis. Pakis-

tan's concern arose from the indications that the Indian military build-up would come to be directed against Pakistan. The United States' participation in India's military build up in the face of protests from Pakistan subjected relations between the two countries to considerable strain.

The unilateral postponement of Pakistan President's visit to Washington in April 1965, and the postponement, at the United States request, of the Aid-to-Pakistan Consortium meeting further strained these relations. These developments aroused grave public indignation in Pakistan.

Following the Rann of Kutch incident in April-May 1965, the India-Pakistan situation took a critical turn. On September 6, 1965 India attacked Pakistan across its international frontier and when Pakistan invoked United States' assurances to come to Pakistan's aid in case of aggression, the United States Government replied that such assurances could best be fulfilled by supporting immediate United Nations action to end the hostilities. Simultaneously, the United States imposed an embargo on military supplies to both Pakistan and India. It was explained that this action was designed to support the United Nation Secretary General's efforts to bring a cessation of hostilities. This embargo on arms, which treated the aggressor and the aggressed alike, worked far more to the disadvantage of Pakistan than to India, which possessed vastly greater indigenous armament resources and diverse sources of outside supply.

It was against this background, that Pakistan's President visited Washington in December 1965, in response to an invitation from the United States President. During this visit, the two Presidents had a friendly and frank exchange of views on matters of mutual interest and succeeded in establishing a basis for a better understanding between the two countries. In the joint communique issued at the end of the talks it was affirmed that the United States regarded as vital for world peace preservation of the independence and integrity of Pakistan and that the United States continued to have interest in Pakistan's economic and social development. After his visit President Ayub said that the United States President understood and appreciated Pakistan's apprehensions about the Indian military build-up.

Defence Pacts

Australia, France, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, the United Kingdom and the United States signed the South-East Asia Treaty Organisation (SEATO) in September 1954. Under its terms, the signatories agreed 'separately and jointly by means of continuous and effective self-help and mutual aid' to 'maintain and develop their individual and collective capacity to resist armed attack and to prevent and counter subversive activities directed from without against their territorial integrity and political stability', and to 'co-operate and develop their economies and to promote economic progress and social well-being'.

Pakistan has regarded SEATO, and other such arrangements

as a defensive alliance, and an instrument for preserving and strengthening peace and fostering economic progress in the region. She thinks that her membership of this pact has in no way fettered her freedom of action in the field of foreign policy or prevented her from maintaining and strengthening friendly relations with all the countries of the world, irrespective of their ideology or social and economic systems.

Though the economic achievements of SEATO have so far been modest, the forum offers scope for economic and cultural co-operation among member countries. In Pakistan, there are two SEATO aided projects, namely, the Cholera Research Laboratory at Dacca, and Skilled Labour Projects in Dacca and Karachi.

The Central Treaty Organization (CENTO) is an arrangement among Pakistan, Iran, Turkey, the United Kingdom for collective defence and for promotion of the economic well-being of the regional countries. The United States is not a full-member of the pact, but sits in its meeting as an observer.

The considerations set forth in respect of SEATO apply, *mutatis mutandis*, to Pakistan's membership of CENTO also, but recent experience is causing the three regional members namely, Pakistan, Iran and Turkey, to re-appraise the usefulness of the Treaty.

As in the case of SEATO, CENTO provides a frame work for increasing economic co-operation among member countries. The CENTO Microwave System linking Ankara, Tehran and Karachi, the CENTO regional Civil Airway project and the CENTO high frequency Radio Communication project linking London with the key-cities of the region are examples of this. The technical assistance provided by the two western members through the CENTO Multilateral Technical Co-operation funds has been put to good use.

INTERNATIONAL ISSUES

Pakistan has taken a very firm stand on issues of international importance, even if she is not directly affected. These included the Palestine question, the issues of colonialism and apartheid, the admission of the People's Republic of China to the UN, the war in Vietnam, Rhodesia, nuclear disarmament and lately non-proliferation of nuclear weapons.

The Palestine Question

When the flow of Jewish immigrants into Palestine developed into a flood after Hitler's rise to power in Germany, the Muslim League, under the leadership of the Quaid-i-Azam, called upon the British Government to stop the immigration and to permit the Arabs to exercise their full political rights. When later, Pakistan emerged as an independent State in August 1947, the Palestine situation was nearing the explosion point. The position taken by the Muslim League under the leadership of the Quaid-e-Azam was that the Balfour Declaration and the Mandate of the League of Nations with regard to Palestine, against the declared wishes of the people of Palestine

and in violation of the pre-existing legal obligations of the British Government which had pledged independence to the Arabs, were null and void and that the proposal to partition Palestine and to create in it a state for aliens, in the teeth of opposition from the majority of the Arab population, was a violation of international law and contrary to the Charter of the United Nations. One of the first acts of the founder of Pakistan, the Quaid-e-Azam, as Governor-General, was to address a forceful letter to President Truman asking him to desist from the "monstrous" attempt to deprive the Arabs of their country which had been their homeland for two thousand years.

In the General Assembly of the United Nation Sir Zafrullah Khan declared that the Pakistan Delegation was strongly opposed to the partition. Pakistan urged that the juridical questions involved should be referred to the International Court of Justice. Sir Zafrullah Khan said that the right solution of the problem was that the Jewish refugees should be reintegrated in the countries to which they belonged or they should be offered facilities for settlement in the larger, newer countries which had more space and greater resources than tiny Palestine.

Pakistan has remained resolutely opposed to "Israel" which was proclaimed in May 1948. It has refused to recognise this state or to have any relations with it. Pakistan continued to take an active interest in all subsequent developments resulting from the United Nations scheme of partition and to sponsor resolutions on behalf of the Arabs of Palestine year after year since 1948. Invariably, Pakistan has remained in the forefront of those defending the principles of justice and international law violated by the majority of United Nations members in planting an alien state in the heart of the Arab word.

Recently, when the veil of secreacy which had shrouded the German-Israel agreement of 1960 for the supply of war materials to Israel was removed, the strong reaction of the Arab countries whose security had thereby been jeopardised, was fully appreciated and echoed in Pakistan.

Apartheid

South Africa is the only country in the world which practises apartheid and racial discrimination is its officially declared State policy. Pakistan has been deeply concerned over such policies. Islam rejects any notion of superiority based on race, colour, creed, sex, etc. Secondly, a large number of persons of Indo-Pakistan origin have long been settled in South Africa, and they are as much affected by these policies as the indigenous African people. Pakistan has supported all resolutions and recommendations of the Security Council and the General Assembly aimed at bringing about the abandonment of apartheid. She has condemned persecution, within South Africa of those opposing their government's policies and has called upon the South African Government to abandon the trial, conviction and execution of political prisoners lest such action engulfs the whole continent in turmoil and bloodshed.

The disregard shown by South Africa to appeals and requests made from all quarters convinced Pakistan that short of an armed conflict, total economic sanctions were the only affective means available to the international community to help resolve the situtation. Inspite of intensive preparations to meet such an eventuality, South Africa was not invulnerable to economic sanctions. This would, however, directly depend on the universality of their application, especially on the part of the trading partners of South Africa. Pakistan accordingly did all it could. The International Conference on Economics Sanctions Against South Africa held at London in April 1964, in which Pakistan participated, considered such measures as the ban on the purchase of South African gold and the blockade of the supplies of oil and rubber, in particular. Pakistan believed that even such partial economic sanctions, universally applied, would have adverse repercusssions on the South African economy.

In accordance with a resolution adopted by the General Assembly in 1962 (which was co-sponsored and supported by Pakistan) and other subsequent resolutions of the Assembly and the Security Council, the Government of Pakistan has taken concrete steps to demonstrate her solidarity with other Afro-Asian countries against apartheid. She does not maintain any diplomatic, consular or trade relations with the South African Government. Pakistani ships do not enter south African ports, neither South African ships are allowed to enter Pakistani ports.

Pakistan has generously contributed for relief to victims of apartheid. She has also joined in the conclusions and recommendations made at the International Seminar on Apartheid held at Brasilia in August, 1966.

Southern Rhodesia

Pakistan has been opposed to racialism and colonialism in all their forms and manifestations. Accordingly, she has fully supported the rights of the African peoples of Rhodesia to self-determination and independence and considers that this British Colony can achieve independence only on the basis of majority rule. The President of Pakistan declared in a statement: "A unilateral declaration of independence by the present Government of Rhodesia in order to perpetuate white minority rule over the African population can have no validity whatsoever and the Government of Pakistan will never recognise it". The present situation in Rhodesia, Pakistan believes, not only involves considerations of justice and fundamental human rights but also of international peace and security.

By the terms of resolution of December 1966, the Security Council has declared that the situation in Southern Rhodesia constitutes a threat to international peace and security and has called upon the member states not to import from Southern Rhodesia a number of commodities such as asbestos, iron ore, chrome, pig iron, sugar, tobacco, copper, meat and meat products and hides, skins and leather, and not to supply to her arms, ammunitions, military aircraft, military vehicles and equipment and materials for the manufacture and main-

tenance of arms and ammunition, and also oil and oil products. The member-states have further been asked not to render any financial or other economic aid to the illegal regime. The council has reaffirmed the inalienable rights of the people of Southern Rhodesia to freedom and independence in accordance with the Declaration on the granting of independence to colonial countries and peoples.

Pakistan does not recognise the white minority regime of Southern Rhodesia. She has also severed all economic relations with it.

South-West Africa

South-west Africa is the only former League of Nations mandated territory which has not been placed under the United Nations Trusteeship or granted independence. The tussle between the United Nations and South Africa over this issue has been going on since 1946. South Africa made no secret of its intention to keep the territory permanently because of its huge wealth in diamonds and copper. The United Nations, on the other hand, has consistently rejected Protoria's contention. All attemp's by the United Nations to bring about a peaceful solution of the problem ended in failure. This led the Governments of Ethiopia and Liberia to invoke in 1960 the compulsory jurisdiction of the International Court of Justice against South Africa under Article 7 of the mandate. On 18th July 1966, the Court, by the President's casting vote, dismissed the case on the ground that Ethiopia and Liberia, the complainants, have no legal right in the matter. The Court's judgement did not deal with the merits of South Africa's administration of the territory and the applications there of the policy of apartheid.

Pakistan thinks that the judgment of the Court has by no means settled the issue of apartheid and the question of South-West Africa's right to self-determination. She has declared her intention to continue to give whole-hearted support to all efforts to end the system of oppression based on apartheid and to secure inalienable human rights. As noted earlier, Pakistan has stopped all import and export trade with South Africa and does not sell or ship equipment or material for the manufacture and maintenance of arms and ammunition to South Africa.

In a recent resolution, the General Assembly decided that South Africa, having failed to fulfil its obligations in respect of the administration of the territory, has no other right to administer it and that henceforth, South West Africa comes under the direct responsibility of the United Nations. Further, it decided to establish an ad hoc committee on South West Africa, consisting of 14 member states, to recommend practical means by which South West Africa should be administered so as to enable the people of the territory to exercise the right of self determination and to achieve independence. Pakistan has been nominated to serve on this Committee.

United Nations Peace-keeping Operations

The primary objective of the establishment of the United Nations is, in the words of the Charter 'to save succeeding generations from the scourge of war' and 'to maintain international peace and security'. Breaches of peace have occurred in various parts of the world in the past and are not unlikely in the future. One such example is the Indo-Pakistan conflict of September 1965, resulting from the Kashmir dispute which has remained unresolved for nearly 20 years due to the intransigence of one of the parties to the dispute. While this state of affairs underlines the need for effective machinery for the peaceful settlement of international disputes and the endorsement of decisions and agreements arrived at, it also highlights the measures to be undertaken by the United Nations in peace-keeping operations. Lately, the peace-keeping functions of the United Nations have assumed an added significance in view of the fact that serious differences of view have arisen between the great powers in regard to the respective roles of the General Assembly and the Security Council in the matter of peace-keeping, and the conducting and financing of it.

Pakistan is deeply interested in the maintenance of international peace. For peace at home and abroad is the first requisite for a developing country. Like other smaller countries, Pakistan also needs the United Nations and would like it to be strengthened so that it can better fulfil the goals of the Charter. The representatives of Pakistan have therefore made their contribution in trying to resolve the controversy about the United Nations' peace-keeping operations. A satisfactory solution has not yet been found; though efforts are continuing through a Special Committee composed of 33 member states. Pakistan is a member of the Special Committee, which gives her an opportunity of helping in the delicate task.

Disarmament

The responsibility of the United Nations in the field of disarmament is laid down in the Charter. In 1959, the United Nations General Assembly unanimously declared its goal as general and complete disarmament under effective international control.

The question of disarmament has often been described as the number one problem of the world. The United Nations has been seized of this question in one form or another almost since its inception. The goal of disarmament is, however, no nearer today than it was twenty years ago.

The so-called 18-Nation Disarmament Committee (but really 17-Nation) has been meeting in Geneva since March 1962, but has not so far been able to reach any specific agreement either on questions of general and complete disarmament or measure aimed at the lessening of international tension. This is partly due to character of the Committee. Two nuclear powers, namely France and the Peoples' Republic of China, are absent from it. France, though a member, has never taken part in its work, while China not being represented in the United Nations, is not a member of the Committee. This also underlines the urgency of restoring the lawful rights of the Peoples Republic

of China in UN. Secondly the Committee does not include in its membership several militarily significant states like Indonesia, Japan and Pakistan.

Pending the attainment of general and complete disarmement, emphasis has been laid on some partial measures which may perhaps pave the way for the ultimate goal. Two of the measures recently given considerable attention are the cessation of nuclear weapons tests and non-proliferation of nuclear weapon.

Nuclear Tests

In the aftermath of the Caribbean crisis of 1962, a partial test ban treaty was signed in Moscow on August 5, 1963 by the foreign ministers of the United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union. The Treaty prohibits nuclear weapons tests in the atmosphere, in outer space and under water, but not underground. In the case of underground tests, a controversy still persists between the West and the Soviet Union on the question of on-site inspection. Pakistan has consistently urged a permanent ban on nuclear tests in all environments, including those underground. Pending the conclusion of a comprehensive test ban treaty, Pakistan welcomed the Moscow Test Ban Treaty and decided to become a party to it. As the President of Pakistan declared:

> Pakistan welcomes the accord reached between the USSR, the United States and the United Kingdom to ban nuclear tests in the atmosphere, outer space and underwater and looks forward to becoming a party to the Treaty in due course.
>
> May I express the hope that this first step will be followed by the speedy conclusion of the treaty to prohibit underground test explosions, and by other initial measures of disarmament, including prohibition of the dissemination of nuclear weapon to which I attach the highest importance and priority in the quest for general and complete disarmament under international control in the supreme interest of all mankind.

Non-Proliferation

Serious dangers are inherent in the wider spread of nuclear weapons. Internal peace and security will be gravely jeopardised if more and more nations have nuclear weapons under their control, whether by manufacture or by acquiring them from others. Pakistan has been deeply conscious of this danger. Addressing the 17th session of the United Nation's General Assembly in September 1962, the President of Pakistan observed:

> An aspect of disarmament which is of deep concern to Pakistan is the clear and present danger of the spread of nuclear weapons and the knowledge of their technology to States which do not now possess them. The General Assembly is aware of this danger. Permit me to observe that the mere adoption of resolutions against the dissemination of nuclear weapons and in favour of the establishment of non-nuclear club, will not remove this danger. Unless the United Nations takes effective and urgent action in this direction, the race in nuclear armaments is bound to over take other parts of the world in the immediate future.
>
> This imminent peril demands that the General Assembly give urgent consideration to the conclusion of a treaty to outlaw the further

> spread of nuclear weapons and the knowledge of their manufacture, whether by acquisition from the present nuclear powers or by any other means. The conclusion of such a treaty cannot wait until agreement is reached on other measures of disarmament.

Again in 1965, the Pakistan delegate drew attention to the fact that even though the question of non-proliferation of nuclear weapons was so important and had been under consideration since 1958, no treaty on non-dissemination of nuclear weapons had been concluded so far. He said:

> Our concern over this failure cannot be overstressed. We are an Asian country. It is in Asia that wars have raged and are still taking place. No continent has a greater stake in halting the further spread of nuclear weapons than Asia and no country more than Pakistan.

Pakistan has repeatedly urged that the membership of the so-called nuclear club be confined to the present five nuclear powers—the permanent members of the Security Council. With the emergence of more nuclear weapon states the barriers would be broken; a holocaust might then ensue. To forstall this danger, Pakistan has urged the conclusion of a non-proliferation treaty at a very early date and pointed out the necessity of not making the treaty contingent on the solution of other related problems or complicating it by other means.

With the aforesaid objectives in view, Pakistan proposed at the 21st Session of the General Assembly the convening of a conference of non-nuclear weapons states, to be held not later than July 1968, to consider the following and other related questions:

(*a*) How can the security of non-nuclear states best be assured?

(*b*) How may non-nuclear powers co-operate among themselves in preventing the proliferation of nuclear weapons?

(*c*) How can nuclear devices be used for exclusively peaceful purposes?

An appropriate draft resolution incorporating the Pakistani proposal was adopted by the General Assembly. The draft resolution received the support of all regional groups and all shades of political alignments represented at the United Nations, particularly the Afro-Asian. Only one country voted against the resolution. A preparatory Committee consisting of 11 member-states has since been appointed by the President of the General Assembly to make arrangements for convening the conference and to consider the question of the association of nuclear states with the work of the conference.

Representation on Committees

Every year Pakistan is elected to several committees and commissions of the United Nations. During the 21st Session of the General Assembly she was elected to some of these bodies.

Pakistan's Permanent Representative at the United Nations has been elected to the Committee on contribution. As noted, she has been nominated to serve in the Committee of 14, established by the General Assembly to recommend practical measures by which South-

West Africa be administered so as to enable the people of the territory to exercise the right of self-determination and to achieve independence. She has been elected to the Economic and Social Council Committee on candidatures, established for the purpose of selecting candidates for election to the International Narcotics Control Board. She has been elected to the Economic and Social Council Commission on Human Rights.

Pakistan has a creditable record in the Economic and Social Council, one of the principal organs of the United Nations on which she has served for several terms. During the present three-year term, which expires on the 31st December 1967, the Pakistan Delegation has activated a number of important issues relating to international aid, trade and economic development in particular, the question of conditions of aid to developing countries, the economic and social consequences of disarmament, and the organisation of the Council so as better to reflect its central co-ordinating role in the field of economic and social work of the United Nations. In view of the role played by her representatives, Pakistan has been elected to the following functional commissions of the Council: Population Commission, Human Rights Commission, Social Development Commission, and Statistical Commission.

In addition, Pakistan has been elected to the Committee for Programme and Co-ordination and the United Nations Industrial Development Board, two important bodies set up in 1967.

Pakistan has also been playing a useful role in the affairs of UNCTAD and is currently a member of the Board of Trade and Development, the Governing Body of the Conference, as well as of the Committee on Manufacture and Shipping. Progress in UNCTAD has been slow due to the difficulty in arriving at a consensus with the developed countries on the question of preferences, commodity agreement and such others. Pakistan's permanent representative to the United Nations was elected chairman of the Cocoa Conference as well as of the First Session of the Trade and Development Board. In the Food and Agricultural Organisation, Pakistan has been elected to the following:

(*a*) FAO Council,

(*b*) Inter-Governmental Committee of the World Food Programme for a term of three years (for the third time), and,

(*c*) a number of Committees of the FAO, such as, the Finance Committee, the Programme Committee, and the Committee on Commodity problems.

31. WHO'S WHO

PRESIDENT

A biographical sketch ; Reform Commissions ; Quotations.

OTHERS

Life Sketches of the Governors ; Central Cabinet Ministers; Provincial Cabinet Ministers; Judges of the Supreme Court and the High Courts; Members of the National Assembly.

MOHAMMAD AYUB KHAN, N.Pk., H.J., F.M.,

President of Pakistan

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

President Ayub Khan was born on 14th May, 1907 in the village of Rehana, 50 miles north of Rawalpindi, in West Pakistan. His father was a Risaldar Major in Hodson's Horse and of him, he writes :"...it was my father who had an influence much greater than anyone else on my character, outlook and attitude towards life.... His presence in the village would inspire awe and respect. But I remember him as a friend, extremely gentle, pious and affectionate. He had a sensitive and understanding mind and I always found great mental satisfaction in his company."*

The family belonged to a celebrated Pathan tribe called Tarin (pronounced *Tareen*) which had come from Pishin, now in Baluchistan, but originally a part of the Afghan Empire. Subsequently, this tribe ruled over part of Hazara and Campbellpur and, for a long time, carried on a bitter struggle against the Sikhs and, after them, the British. The tribe was, and is, known for its courage and strength of character and could boast many feats of bravery and many dauntless leaders. It was such men as Sardar Mohammad Khan Tarin who defied the Sikhs until, overwhelmed by greater numbers, he was captured and tortured. He remained adamant in his refusal to submit and died of cruelties inflicted. Later, when the British came, the same spirit of independence prevailed and the Tarins offered the same resolute defiance. The head of his family was blown from a gun.

His family was deeply religious and the first plan for his early education was that he should become *Hafiz-i-Quran*, meaning that he should know the whole of the Holy Book by heart. He was placed under the tutelage of a local moulvi when he was not much than four years old and he began to apply himself to the enormous task of acquiring the whole of the Holy Word, but simply to learn it parrot-fashion was not enough and the youthful philosopher insisted on being told the exact meaning of every word!

Later, he was admitted to a regular school in the locality about four miles from his home. He made the journey each day by mule and this marks the beginning of his

*See Mohammad Ayub Khan, *Friends Not Masters*, Oxford, London (1967).

love of riding and outdoor exercise. He completed his secondary education with a good second division at the age of sixteen. These impressionable years were passed not simply in the acquisition of book-learning in order to pass certificate examinations, but also to acquire the principles of the good life. One lesson he soon learnt that a man should never be judged by place of origin, colour or family. "All my life I have been unconscious of these considerations. It has been an article of faith with me that a man should be judged on merit."

His father, who was deeply affected by a sense of Muslim nationalism, was anxious to send him to Aligarh University, then an outstanding symbol of a growing Muslim consiousness. Boys from all parts of the sub-continent, drawn from differing social background and speaking different languages, came to this institution. During his three years at Aligarh, he developed a fascination for the place. It "has always remained a place of pilgrimage for me," he writes.

About the time when he was preparing for the Bachelor of Arts degree, an Army Commission, led by the Adjutant-General from Army Headquarters, visited Aligarh, looking for suitable *Indian* material for induction into the Army. He was, at that time, a member of the University Office Training Corps and, impressed by his carriage and calert keenness, the Adjutant General asked him if he would like to join the Army. His father had intended him for a civilian career, but the prospect of Army life was alluring indeed to one of martial background. Moreover, there were, at that time, very few *Indians,* and even fewer Muslims, holding full commissioned rank.

There was a round of interviews with the Deputy Commissioner, with the Governor of the Province and with senior officers at Army Headquarters and evidently he was able to satisfy them all because, shortly afterwards, he was informed, in June 1926, that he had been selected for the Royal Military College at Sandhurts. He sailed for England in the following month.

He records that, at Sandhurst, he remained in first-rate physical condition and thrived on an exacting life. He was the first foreign cadet to be promoted to the rank of corporal and, on that auspicious occasion, he acquired the two stripes of that rank. Both work and leisure were put to profitable use and leave was usually spent, with other cadets, in travel abroad. In the terminal examinations, he stood first among the *Indian* cadets, but in December, 1927, he received news of his father's death and he sailed for home.

His military career began with the customary posting to a British regiment serving in the sub-continent. It was the practice that newly commissioned officers, or British officers just out from home, were given a period of initiation with a British unit. At the conclusion of his period of service with the Royal Fusiliers, to which he had been posted, his commanding officer reported that he would make a good officer in any army.

On joining what was then the *Indian* Army, his first regiment was the 14th. Punjab which had been raised from one of Ranjit Singh's units. The Sikhs called it the *Sherdal* battalion and the Muslims changed the name to *Sherdil.* Like many other units of the British-Indian Army, the regiment was made up of several groups, equally distributed as to number. His battalion included Pathans, Punjabi Mussalmans, Sikhs and Dogras.

In 1939, the second World War broke out and he was sent to New Delhi to raise a territorial battalion. From there, he went to the Staff College at Quetta where he completed the course successfully and was posted to Army Headquarters in Delhi as a

staff officer. His next posting was to the Headquarters of 15th. Corps, at Barrackpore, just outside Calcutta. Here, along with others, he was employed at Government House drawing up a plan for defence of the sub-continent against the possibility of a Japanese invasion.

The Japanese having entered Burma, the 15th. Corps moved south to the Arakan where he was posted as second-in-command of the Assam Regiment, which soon found itself involved in heavy fighting. The battalion crossed the Chindwin and the Irrawady rivers and advanced through Mandalay. In extremely adverse circumstances, the battalion fought its way through the jungle against constant Japanese attacks, and after eighteen months of heavy fighting in which he served with much distinction, he was transferred to the North West Frontier and given command of a battalion of the 15th. Punjab Regiment then stationed at Landi Kotal on the Khyber Pass.

Upon the conclusion of the War, he was sent to the training centre of the regiment, at Ferozepur, there to re-raise his old battalion, the 14th. Punjab, which had been captured by the Japanese upon the fall of Singapore.

His next assignment was that of President of the Army Selection Board at Dehra Dun where candidates were interviewed and examined for Army commissions. Of this spell with the Selection Board, he writes that he found it extremely interesting and a fine experience in the art of assessing people.

Meanwhile, the struggle for independence was developing in intensity and, along with it, a violent communal situation. Upon the announcement of the Partition Plan, in June 1947, the Sikhs began a vigorous agitation against the proposed division of the Punjab and, failing in this, determined that, at any rate, their own community should not be divided. Private intelligence, as well as public demonstrations of violence, pointed to a seriously deteriorating situation in the Punjab and, in July 1947, the Partition Commission decided to establish a special military command to exercise control in crucial border areas. He was attached to the British Commander in an advisory capacity on behalf of Pakistan. This command was known as the Punjab Boundary Force and it was intended to exercise a reassuring and stabilising effect on the situation. In the event, however, the Force proved powerless to restrain the well-planned violence that followed the partition.

"There was utter paucity of communication," he says. "This Force would only run to a place which was attacked. By the time troops arrived the place was looted and burnt and Muslims massacred. In the end all this Force could do was to try and keep the roads clear for the refugees." He goes on to record: "This was the unhappiest period of my life. I had never seen anything so terribly brutal before. Women and children were mutilated, innocent people butchered mercilessly. All human qualities seemed to have been snuffed out and the edifice of civilisation crumbled during these terrible weeks. My faith in human nature was shaken and I used to ask myself what can one do to stop this madness?" However, he was instrumental in saving a number of Muslims, protecting Muslim colonies besieged by the Sikhs and rescuing a number of Muslim families from Simla, Dehra Dun and Ambala.

After this unhappy time, spent on the Indo-Pakistan boundary, he was posted to Waziristan, on the North West Frontier of Pakistan, there to command a brigade. He had seen various campaigns in this area and had long felt that the posting of Army units there was a great waste of man-power and military effort. All they did was to pro-

vide a constant irritation to the tribesman and a target for them to fire at. Just before independence, the British had decided to withdraw the Army from Waziristan and this decision was adopted by Pakistan, the successor State. He was made responsible for a major part of its implementation.

The problem was not as simple as it might sound. Troops had occupied the area for more than a century and although the decision to withdraw was advisable, the operation would be difficult and could be dangerous. However, by a combination of tact, persuasion and firmness, he managed to convey to the tribesmen the idea that they, and the men of the Pakistan Army, were brothers in faith and partners in collective freedom and that the intended withdrawal should be orderly and peaceful. At the same time, he made it clear that any armed hostility would provoke prompt and effective retaliation. His words had their effect. The Maliks (i.e. the tribal chiefs, not only abstained from any hostile action or attitude, but helped in a successful withdrawal and even took the Army's place in picketting the hills.

Now a senior officer, with Staff College training and a substantial military career behind him, he began to play a more prominent part in the building up of the new nation's Army. He served, for several years, as General Officer Commanding-in-Chief in East Pakistan; then he returned to GHQ as Adjutant General. Finally, he became the first Pakistani to hold the exalted and proud rank of Commander-in-Chief.

At the outset, the Pakistan Army started with numerous and formidable problems. To begin with, in the old British *Indian* Army there had been no completely Muslim units as such, whereas there had been complete and intact Hindu and Ghorka regiments. The soldiers of Pakistan came from many different units and many of them were either half-trained or not trained at all. Secondly, there were grave deficiencies in equipment and material. Under the partition arrangements, Pakistan was entitled to a due share of arms, ammunition and military material, amounting in all to about 160 train loads, but most of it was never delivered and much that arrived had been damaged or rendered unserviceable. At the time of independence, the Army had been fully engaged in safeguarding and settling refugees who poured into the country in millions. Almost immediately thereafter, the Army was involved in the Kashmir fighting and, summing it all up, he says, the position was so bad that "for the first few years, only five rounds of practice ammunition could be allowed to each man in a year." "To fashion the army, to train it, to equip it, to find the right type of officers and soldiers, and to create and maintain a high standard of morale was a tremendously difficult task in the situation."

It was in January, 1948, that he was posted to East Pakistan as General Officer Commanding-in-Chief. The position he discovered there was lamentable—indeed, there was little or nothing to command. There were two infantry battalions, one with three and the other with two Muslim companies. As for a headquarters, there was none, except for some very inadequate accommodation without tables, chairs or even maps of East Pakistan. He started by building permanent accommodation for a Brigade Group and after carrying out a reconnaissance of the entire Province, he located two more suitable areas, one near Dacca and the other near Comilla, where cantonments could be established.

Meanwhile, as relations with India underwent deterioration, the borders of East Pakistan underlay constant threat, but as Pakistan was involved in Kashmir the question of providing reinforcements for East Pakistan was one of the utmost difficulty. Within the Province itself conditions were adverse in every way. Roads were totally unsuitable to modern traffic, especially modern military traffic; railways had not recovered from

the excessive demands made upon them during the war period and inland water transport was ill-organised and consisted of the traditional sailboat. Chittagong Port was far from being the developed installation it is today and there were no military airfields as such from which the newly created Air Force could be operationally efficient.

Within the Province, the civil situation was also unsatisfactory. Trade, especially the jute trade, was still largely in Hindu hands and to that extent trade policy was under dictation from Calcutta, to which city the profits were drained. In the Government services, there was a totally unsatisfactory representation so far as East Pakistanis were concerned and the people of the Province were beginning to entertain unfortunate and unhappy suspicions towards their compatriots in West Pakistan. Political life in the eastern province acquired a pattern of hostile thinking, directed towards West Pakistan and imbued with a spirit of agitation and discontent. To him, nothing could have been more unhealthy nor more distressing.

In the capacity of GOC-in-C, East Pakistan, he came into contact with political leaders of the Province, meeting men like Khwaja Nazimuddin, Nurul Amin, Hamidul-Haq Chaudhury, and H.S. Suhrawardy. To them, he expounded a gospel of positive action based on constructive effort to develop the provincial economy, schools, social amenities and so on. He urged the unwisdom of contention and negative endeavour, but the response was not encouraging. At the same time, his more immediate concern was the defence of the eastern province, for the attitude of the Indian neighbour continued hostile and the military resources at his disposal were meagre indeed. He was indefatigable in touring every district and subdivision of the Province, reconnoitring likely avenues of invasion and preparing plans for resisting it. The problem was complicated by a difficult law and order situation in which the police, numbering about 60,000, had not yet become welded into a disciplined, efficient body of men. To meet the needs of the hour, he had established the East Pakistan Rifles, had initiated a system of giving battle training to police officers and built up an armed force that could be expected to give a good account of itself in the event of any attack on Pakistan's frontiers.

He left the Province in November, 1949 and took over as Adjutant-General at GHQ. In this capacity he served for about a year, coming face to face with a number of basic army problems and, at the same time, gaining direct experience of the operations and working of the Central Government.

The particular responsibilities of the Adjutant-General's Branch are to do with personnel matters such as recruitment, pay and pensions, discipline and allied matters concerning the individual in the Army. In these respects, he found much that was disturbing. The Army had no pay or pension code and many former perquisites had been withdrawn. Conditions of service had not been determined and the position was that neither officer nor man could have any real sense of economic security, and that, at the very least, was the minimum that could be assured to a man who might, at any time, be called upon to give his life for his country. It took nearly seven years to persuade the administration of the necessity for such measures.

Another important question with which he was directly concerned was that of the state of training, discipline and *esprit de corps*. The Pakistan Army consisted, for the most part, of war-time recruitment, excellent fighting men no doubt, but inadequately trained, and officered largely by men who held emergency commissions and had not, perhaps, seriously considered the prospect of a permanent military career. Moreover, the new battalions had been re-formed out of heterogenous units taken from the former

British-Indian Army and put together as quickly as possible. Obviously, the new regiments did not possess that sense of comradely solidarity without which no army can be an effective fighting force and, as for the officers, a Training School was established with which to raise the professional level in the shortest possible time.

In September, 1950, he was informed that he had been selected as the next Commander-in-Chief and would take over in the following January. It was an event of signal interest and importance, not only for himself personally, representing as it did the crowning achievement of a successful military career, but for the country as a whole. After nearly two hundred years, the sub-continent was to have a Muslim army with a Muslim Commander-in-Chief.

Plainly stated, his job was to organise the new army, train it and give it an edge that would qualify it as an effective defender of its country and countrymen. Here was an opportunity and also a challenge which he accepted, determined to achieve the highest professional standards and content with nothing less.

Within a few months of taking over, there occurred two disquieting events that could be damaging to the Army and certainly aroused much public clamour. One was the discovery of a conspiracy by some senior army officers designed to overthrow the Government; the second was the assassination of the Prime Minister, Liaquat Ali Khan. As to the first, this fell directly within the responsibilities of the Commander-in-Chief and, delicate and difficult as the affair was, he handled it with coolness and skill. All suspects were swiftly rounded up, inquiry was instituted and, in due time, the guilty were punished.

The assassination of Liaquat Ali Khan suggested internal disruption and, as is now known, this is exactly the interpretation that was placed upon it in some quarters, notably in the case of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, who expected that within a year or two, Pakistan was likely to disintegrate. As Commander-in-Chief of the Pakistan Army General Mohammad Ayub Khan realised that two things were essential: to keep the Army out of this political turmoil and to ensure that it was fit and ready to resist attack.

The problems were numerous and first among them was that of solving, once and for all, the position of the soldier with respect to terms of service and reasonable incentives. A man is not likely to serve well unless he has reasonable conditions in which to live. Fair accommodation, diet, medical care are basic considerations. Many officers and men were married, with children, and hence the Army could not ignore its responsibilities with respect to family problems. New and better hospitals were built with efficient doctors, surgeons and nurses. The ex-soldier and his dependents were not forgotten. A Postwar Reconstruction Fund invested so as to produce an income to be used for the welfare of ex-soldiers and the education of their children. Today, no less than twenty six million rupees yearly are spent on these purposes.

Of equal importance was the organisation and structure of the field formations and field units. The role of the Army in the new country; the tasks it was likely to be called upon to perform; the geographical circumstances in which those tasks might have to be carried out, were the determining factors in the reorganisation necessary to achieve a balanced force, possessing the requisite fire-power, mobility and battle efficiency all to be achieved as quickly and as economically as possible. In the light of all this, the training system was revised and material resources were increased.

His first concern was with the defence of Pakistan against any possible aggression

by India, whether in the east or in the west. Any such conflict would be a national war in every sense for India's hostility towards Pakistan seemed implacable and the evidence for India's expansionist aims could not be overlooked. Pakistan was not concerned with the conquest of India for that would have been the negation of the concept of separation. But it was necessary to make India realise and understand that it would not be worth while to maintain an attitude of hostility and that any thought of armed attack would yield nothing. In short, the Pakistan Army had to be built up and trained so that it could meet any Indian threat at a moment's notice.

The task was neither easy nor simple, but in the end it was accomplished. The Pakistan Army emerged as a fine, well-equipped force able to take on an enemy several times its strength and, in September 1965, this was very well proved.

At the same time, he was deeply concerned with the position of the Air Force and the Navy, for land defence is essentially an air-land problem and Pakistan was greatly dependent upon the sea-routes that led to its ports and the defence of these was a naval task.

His work as Commander-in-Chief earned for him a considerable reputation and on the expiry of his tenure, an extension was immediately given. Writing to him on the acceptance of this extension, the Prime Minister said: "Pakistan at this juncture cannot afford to lose your services and I am confident that the defences of this country are safe in your hands as they have been in the past."

Meanwhile, in the political situation of the country, there had been progressive deterioration to which he, with so many others, had been a witness.

As a professional, regular soldier, he had been trained to keep aloof from politics and political life although as GOC-in-C, East Pakistan and, afterwards, as a Principal Staff Officer at GHQ, he could not help coming in contact with the country's political leaders and with some of the problems arising from the political situation. There were, inevitably, occasions for discussion of these problems and for other matters associated with them and he found that the response to suggestions for a more positive approach was dishearteningly inadequate. This, of course, seemed to be concomitant with a steady decline in political stability, a situation which was of necessity a matter for concern to a Commander-in-Chief bearing the responsibility for defence in the event of war. Indeed, he could see that political weakness could itself be an invitation to any hostile power.

Deeply troubled by these circumstances and pondering the causes, he, as early as 1954, set down, in a document that is now of historic importance, what seemed to him to be the facts responsible for this growing malaise as well as his own solution for the problems that it created. He foresaw the possibility of even further decline and events were unhappily to show that these gloomy forebodings were neither erroneous nor premature.

At about this time, he was invited by the then Governor-General to take over, but such a possibility was furthest from his wish or thought and he clearly and unmistakably declined. This decision sprang partly from a long-ingrained training; partly from the belief that the politicians themselves should correct their own mistakes and partly because he still had the Army to consider. "Had I succumbed to the temptation, the course of history might well have been different. We would certainly not have had an Army worth the name and the only stabilising element in the whole situation would have been decentralised."

Nevertheless, when the Governor-General, in 1954, dissolved the Constituent Assembly, forming a new Cabinet of Ministers, he agreed to act as Minister of Defence.

"The one consideration which made me accept this offer was that I wanted to act as a buffer between the politicians and the Armed Forces." He suspected that the politicians who now lacked anything else to stand on "had their eyes on the Army in which they wanted to create their own pockets of support." Soon, however, he left the Cabinet and returned to GHQ.

In 1956, Pakistan's first republican constitution was promulgated and the country became a Republic within the Commonwealth. These changes, hailed with much enthusiasm, yielded little benefit. Prime ministers came and went; party loyalties waxed and waned; more than once suspension of provincial governments became necessary. A free fight in the East Pakistan Assembly led to the death of the Deputy Speaker.

In these circumstances, people despairfully wondered whether there was any hope remaining and, more than once, murmurs were heard that perhaps, after all, it was the Armed Forces that might yet rescue the situation and restore balance and discipline. These murmurs reached his ears, but he remained hesitant. Finally, he was pressed by Iskander Mirza in October, 1958. He says: "My reaction was that it was very unfortunate that such a desperate stage had arisen necessitating drastic action. And it was not pleasant to get involved in it, but there was no escape. It was the last bid to save the country."

At 8 p.m. on October 8, 1958 Iskander Mirza abrogated the Constitution, proclaimed Martial Law throughout Pakistan, dismissed the central and provincial governments, dissolved the National Assembly and the Provincial Assemblies. At the same time, he appointed General Ayub Chief Martial Law Administrator. Notwithstanding these decisions and the action that followed them, there was little preparation, negligible movement of troops and, as is well known, not a single shot was fired to enforce the proclamation. "From that time onwards," he writes "emotions had no place in the proceedings. Now that this job had to be done it must be done properly. A simple plan was formulated and put into operation."

About three weeks later, Iskander Mirza resigned his office and prepared to leave Pakistan. It had become evident that his past political associations had been too many and too close to convince the nation that a new beginning was in fact being made and he assumed the presidency. Nothing now existed in the way of the reforms that the new administration had promised the people.

That the Revolution had unanimous and popular support could scarcely be doubted. A year later, he made extensive meet-the-people tours in both Provinces and wherever he halted to address them, crowds gathered, thousands of people coming long distances to see the new President and hear what he had to tell them. When he sought a vote of confidence from the directly elected representatives of the people, the votes affirming support for him amounted to 99.6 per cent.

In his very first broadcast to the nation, in October, 1958, he had outlined the kind of programme that he deemed necessary to put the country on its feet. Of himself, he said he was a man in a hurry and he set about implementing the programme with efficiency and expedition. Along with other measures designed to meet the necessities of the immediate situation, a series of reforms was set in train of which the first was the difficult question relating to land, both holdings and tenures. A Land Reforms Commission was appointed to consider these matters, along with all their implications and views held by the public. Some of the far-reaching changes brought about in the early years of his administration—reforms relating to land, of the legal system, of marriage and family laws—these are measures of which he feels particularly proud.

On the first anniversary of the Revolution, he had the satisfaction of announcing the country's first measure of representative government. The promulgation of the Basic Democracies Order 1959, provided for the institution of representative councils to be elected by direct adult franchise. The first such election was held in 1959 and, since then, the second was held in 1964. In March, 1962, a new Constitution was promulgated and elections to the new National and Provincial Assemblies were held under this Constitution in April of the same year. On May 8, 1962 Martial Law came to an end and the country settled down to representative government through the new Constitution. In accordance with its terms, fresh elections were held to the Electoral College in 1964 and in 1965, he was again elected President of Pakistan after a keenly fought contest in which his principal opponent was none other than Miss Fatima Jinnah, sister of the founder of Pakistan.

Among his many triumphs, it is in the sphere of foreign relations that he has enjoyed conspicuous success. By force of his own personality, he restored to Pakistan the dignity and stature it had lost in world affairs. Enunciating the principles that Pakistan, situated as it is, must have good relations with its powerful neighbours, and that friendship with one country, does not mean coolness towards another; he has forged satisfactory relations with China and with the Soviet Union. Nor was he wanting in efforts to come to a satisfactory settlement with India. Much of the credit for the creation of Regional Co-operation for Development, bringing together Iran, Pakistan and Turkey, belongs to his foresight and persuasion. During his many foreign tours, he has not only impressed everyone with his own personality, but has successfully conveyed a true image of Pakistan as a young but confident, independent and energetic nation.

In September 1965, India attacked West Pakistan along the border from Sialkot southwards to Khem Kharan and beyond. Using aircraft, armour and a heavy superiority in troops, India directed her initial assault on Lahore, in the hope of capturing that city and dividing West Pakistan. The fact that the Indian attack was held and repulsed was a personal triumph for the man who had built up the Pakistan Armed Forces and had forged them into a splendid fighting machine.

President Ayub is deeply concerned with the problems that confront Pakistan in its progress towards a fuller and better life for the people; towards security for its frontiers; towards friendship and goodwill to all. There is much to be done, no doubt, but the example that he has set before the nation will go far towards providing it with all the zeal, energy and determination it can possibly need.

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REFORM COMMISSIONS AND COMMITTEES

MARRIAGE AND FAMILY LAWS COMMISSION*

Appointed: August 4, 1954.

Chairman: Justice Abdur Rashid.

Report : June 18, 1959.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Registration of marriage and divorce; second and subsequent marriages after permission by courts; divorce effective after permission of matrimonial courts.	(1) Muslim Family Laws Ordinance (1961) and West Pakistan Conciliation Courts Ordinance (1962) promulgated. The Family Laws Ordinance requires the registration of all marriages and authorises Union Councils to make necessary arrangements by appointment of *Nikah* Registrars. The Ordinance also regulates polygamy requiring any person desirous of having a second wife to approach the Chairman of his Union Council after securing the consent of the first wife. The Chairman then constitutes an Arbitration Council to take a decision on such request. A person intending to divorce his wife must give notice to this effect to the Chairman with a copy to his wife. The Chairman then constitute an Arbitration Council consisting of three members with himself as head. The other two members are nominated by the parties concerned. The court attempts at bringing about reconciliation, failing which divorce becomes effective after 90 days from the date of notice.

*Although this Commission was formed and it reported in the period before the Revolution, it is being included here because it was the Revolutionary regime which, undaunted by the strong reaction against these progressive measures, went ahead with the implementation of its recommendations.

(2) Rationalisation of Muslim Law which disinherits the grandson of a predeceased son.	(2) The flaw in the Muslim Law of inheritance was corrected by the Muslim Family Laws Ordinance making the Grandfather's grandson eligible to inherit property in such cases.

SUGAR COMMISSION

Appointed: September 30, 1957.

Chairman: Mian Afzal Hussain, then Vice-Chancellor Punjab University.

Report: August 4, 1959.

Terms of Reference :

(1) Review of the present acreage, the production of cane, recovery percentage and the manufacturing capacity of mills with actual turn-over.
(2) Economics of production of refined sugar in Pakistan as compared with major sugarproducing countries.
(3) Future expansion of the industry keeping in view the cost of refined sugar to the consumer and expenditure of foreign exchange either on the import of machinery or the import of refined sugar.
(4) Economics of "Gur" making and "Khandsari" as compared with factoryproduced refined sugar.
(5) The possibility of increasing the production of beet sugar.
(6) The use of factory molasses for the production of glycerine, power alcohol, etc.
(7) Recommendations for future expansion of cane-acreage and production of sugar.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Preparation of a Master Plan for the development of sugar industry.	(1) Master Plan prepared.
(2) Target production of 500,000 tons of sugar in 1965.	(2) Total production capacity of white sugar, including that under installation and in hand, amounted to 514,000 tons by 1966.
(3) Rehabilitation and extension of existing sugar mills.	(3) The expansion of sugar mills at Thakurgaon, Jaipurhat, Kushtia and Rajshahi in East Pakistan was taken in hand.

PRESS COMMISSION

Appointed: September 28, 1958.

Chairman: Mr. H.B. Tyabji ex-Chief Judge, Chief Court of Sind.

Report: April 4, 1959.

Terms of Reference:

To enquire into the present state of the Press in Pakistan and its future lines of development and in particular:

(1) to examine and report on the laws regulating the Press in Pakistan and, in the light of similar laws and administrative practices prevailing in other democratic countries and bearing in mind the special conditions of Pakistan, to make such recommendations as may be necessary for the amendment, revision or consolidation of these laws;

(2) to examine and make recommendations on the control, management, ownership and financial structure of newspapers and periodicals;

(3) to examine and report on the working of monopolies and chains and their effect on the presentation of accurate news and fair views, as also the effect of holding companies, the distribution of advertisements and such other forms of external influence as may have a bearing on the development of a healthy national Press;

(4) to examine the organisation and functioning of news agencies and to report on the measures needed for quick, accurate and objective reporting of news;

(5) to examine and make recommendations on the rates of pay and working conditions of journalists;

(6) to make recommendations for the attainment and maintenance of high professional standards among journalists;

(7) to review the adequacy of newsprint supplies and their distribution among ali classes of newspapers and the possibilities of indigenous production of newsprint;

(8) to examine and report on liaison between Government and the Press;

(9) to examine and make recommendations on the working of Press Advisory Committees and the organisations of editors and working journalists;

(10) to review the present position of the printing industry in Pakistan and to examine the question of providing facilities for printing and other machinery with a view to ensuring higher standards of printing.

Recommendation:

(1) Working journalists to be provided with security of service, better salaries and better working conditions. A minimum wage for different categories of working journalists and setting up of a wage board for fixing the rates of wages

Implementation:

(1) The 1946 Act was accordingly amended. Working Journalists' Conditions of Service Ordinance, 1960, was promulgated and a Wage Board set up (May 30, 1960) which recommended (January 1961) a 42-hour working week and a fixed scale of pay for different categories of journalists and also awarded various fringe

was recommended.	benefits, such as dearness allowance, gratuity, and provident fund.
(2) Application of the Industrial Employment (Standing Orders) Act, 1946, in cases of disputes between working journalists and management.	(2) Industrial Disputes Ordinance, 1959, which replaced the Industrial Employment Act has been made applicable to working journalists. It provides machinery for settlement of strikes and adjudication of labour disputes by an industrial court.
(3) Department of Journalism to be opened in all universities to provide trained personnel.	(3) Classes in journalism have been started in the Dacca, Karachi and the Punjab (since 1940) Universities.
(4) Recruitment to gazetted posts in the Information Department of the government from among journalists.	(4) Recruitment to gazetted posts is made by PID preferably from qualified journalists.
(5) Action against the Press by the government to be preceded by a judicial reference.	(5) Two pre-independence Laws (Press and Registration of Books Act 1867, and the Press (Emergency Power) Act 1931), some of whose provisions were very stringent, were replaced by the new consolidated Press and Publications Ordinance, 1960 which prohibited the executive authority from demanding a security deposit from a newspaper or a printing press or confiscating a deposit previously made, without the express sanctions of the judiciary. The Ordinance was later amended in 1963 and subsequently replaced by a new one. This Ordinance was further amended on November 29, 1964 and brought more into line with the commission's recommendation and journalists' collective wishes.
(6) Appointment of a General Council of the Press to deal with journalistic ethics.	(6) Pakistan Council of News Editors (CPNE) adopted a Press Code of Ethics, on July 4, 1965 to regulate effectively its conduct according to a given code. The code is implemented through a Court of Honour set up by the journalists.

LAND REFORMS COMMISSION.

Appointed: October 18, 1958.

Chairman: Mr. Akhtar Hussain, then Governor, West Pakistan.

Report: January 20, 1959.

Terms of Reference:

The Commission was asked to consider problems relating to the ownership and tenure of agricultural land and to recommend measures for ensuring better production and social justice as well as security of tenure for those engaged in cultivation.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) No person to be allowed to own or possess an area of more than 500 acres of irrigated land or 1000 acres of unirrigated land.	(1) Ceiling fixed as recommended.
(2) Land owned or possessed in excess of the ceiling unit to be resumed by Government and offered for sale to tenants who cultivate it.	(2) 2.3 million acres of land were resumed by government. One-third of the land thus resumed was distributed among landless tenants at a nominal price of Rs 8 per produce index unit payable over a long period.
(3) Compensation for the resumed land to be paid according to a given scale.	(3) Implemented.
(4) *Jagir* of every kind to be abolished without payment of any compensation.	(4) This has been done.
(5) Conversion of occupancy tenancy into full ownership.	(5) All occupant tenants became owners on payment where they were paying rent, and without payment where no rent was being paid by them to the land-lord.
(6) Steps to be taken to consolidate fragmented holdings by introducing a province-wide scheme of compulsory consolidation.	(6) Under the consolidation of holdings programme implemented in West Pakistan, $7\frac{1}{2}$ million acres have so far been consolidated.
(7) Other recommendations included: (i) Disposal of Waqfs;	(7) (i) Waqf of the category prescribed in section III of the Muslim Waqf (Validating Act of 1913), under which any benefit was claimable

for himself by the person by whom the *Waqf* was created or by any member of his family, or by any of his descendants, has ceased to exist as such. The land comprised in such a Waqf is divided amongst the beneficiaries according to the Muslim Law of inheritance.

(ii) Special provision for female dependents;	(ii) Owner of ancestral land can transfer by way of gift a maximum area equal to 6,000 produce index units to each of his female dependents.
(iii) Share in *shamlat*.	(iii) The owner is entitled to a share in the *shamlat* to the extent that this, together with the area retained by him, would not provide him with not more than an area of 500 acres of irrigated land or 36,000 produce index units, whichever is the greater.

MARITIME COMMISSION

Appointed : November 19, 1958.

Chairman : Adm. H.M.S. Choudhry, then C-in-C, Pakistan Navy, and Honorary Nautical Advisor.

Report : April 8, 1959.

Terms of Reference:

The Commission was required to investigate and recommend measures for the improvement of:

(1) the Merchant Navy and the governmental agencies connected with its operation;
(2) port facilities to meet the requirements of shipping;
(3) ship-building and ship-repair yards, including riverine shipyards and dockyards;
(4) technical services for the Merchant Navy and allied sectors, including training facilities; and
(5) private organisations for commercial and technical management of merchant shipping.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Formation of a Shipping Corporation for international trade.	(1) The National Shipping Corporation was established in 1963. The Corporation is an autonomous body with 25 percent

	of its share subscribed by government and the remainder by the public. It operates purely on commercial lines. It owns 59 ships.
(2) Revision of coastal freight rates in view of the changed circumstances.	(2) Interwing freight-rates have been reduced. Special inducement freight rates in respect of certain commodities have also been introduced.
(3) Integration of administration in view of lack of close co-ordination and balanced sharing for proper development of the two interlinked subjects of Merchant Shipping and Ports.	(3) In pursuance of this recommendation, shipping and ports, previously under the ministries of Commerce, were transferred to the Ministry of Communications in 1960. In the following year, a Directorate-General of Ports and Shipping was set up to co-ordinate the two subjects and implement government policies. The Directorate has recently been transferred to the Ministry of Defence.
(4) Development of Ports and Port facilities.	(4) The Chittagong Port has been developed into a full-fledged Port and its handling capacity raised to 2.5 million tons.
(5) The existing shipyard and engineering works to be better equipped and other facilities improved. A subsidised shipbuilding industry to be developed to meet national requirements.	(5) The Karachi Shipyard has made a beginning by the construction of ocean-going vessels for Pakistan and neighbouring countries. Ship repairing facilities have also been provided at Khulna and Narayanganj shipyards. There are plans for setting up a shipyard for repair and building vessels for inland water transport and also manufacture of marine diesel engines.
(6) Establishment of a training institute for marine mercantile officers.	(6) A Marine Mercantile Academy was established at Jaldia near Chittagong in September, 1962, for training of personnel for the merchant fleet. The Academy has taken a batch of 82 trainees in the current year.
(7) Qualifying examination of Masters, Mates and Engineers to be arranged in Pakistan to save time and expense of candidates who have to go abroad for this purpose.	(7) Facilities have been provided.

ADMINISTRATIVE REORGANISATION COMMITTEE.

Appointed : December 12, 1958.

Chairman : Mr. G. Ahmad.

Report : April 25, 1962.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To review the organisational structure, functions and procedures of ministries, departments and subordinate offices of the Government of Pakistan, and to recommend improvements for efficient and expeditious disposal of business in consonance with the requirements of the economy.

(2) To carry out a survey of the staff position of the Central Government with a view to strengthening, retrenching or re-allocating the staff wherever necessary.

(3) To recommend measures for the establishment of close liaison between the Central and Provincial administrations, particularly in the field of development works.

(4) To examine and co-ordinate the recommendations of the Committee to be set up by the Provincial Governments with a view to ensuring a uniform approach to the problem of re-organization of Government offices.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Organisational and procedural improvement of the Central Secretariat.	(1) A High-level Committee under the Establishment Secretary was set up for planning, controlling and guiding work. Standing Organisation Committee was also set up to advise on organisational and procedural issues of ministries and departments. The Standing Committee was replaced by a Cabinet Committee in October, 1966.
(2) Appointment of specialists in ministries of Education, Health and Social Welfare.	(2) Implemented as far as practicable.
(3) Introduction of the Section Officer Scheme in the secretariat, eliminating several layers of subordinate functionary.	(3) Recommendation forwarded before the submission of the full report and implemented on 1.10.1959.
(4) Delegation of wider administrative and financial powers by ministries to departments under them.	(4) Accepted. Ministries are now relieved of executive functions, which have been transferred to departments.
(5) Change in the system of financial control, budgeting and accountancy.	(5) Existing system of budgeting and financial control radically revised in September, 1960. Ministries are entrusted with wide financial powers; the dilatory

system of multiple clearances prescribed for incurring expenditure against appropriations was abolished. A system of financial advice built into ministries to ensure efficient management of funds.

(6) Creation of an Economic Pool of officers.

(6) An Economic Pool was constituted in 1959, on the pattern of the Finance and Commerce Pool of pre-independence time. The Pool comprises a total of 169 posts. 120 of them have already been filled.

EDUCATION COMMISSION

Appointed : December 30, 1958.

Chairman : Mr. S. M. Sharif, then Secretary, Ministry of Education.

Report : August, 1959.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To bring the country's spiritual and cultural heritage into harmony with the contemporary world;
(2) To equip the young people of Pakistan with such knowledge and training which will enable them to realise fully their individual capacities and promote a collective sense of national integration;
(3) To provide a basis for projects of educational, social and economic growth;
(4) To raise academic standards and to bring them up to par with those prevailing in advanced countries of the world.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Compulsory primary education to be achieved by 1970.	(1) Primary education in the first stage, from classes I to V, will be compulsorily introduced by 1970, and from classes VI to VIII by 1975.
(2) Secondary education to include intermediate classes, to complete one stage of education.	(2) Separation of Intermediate colleges from the jurisdiction of university effected, but later this change was suspended owing to certain administrative difficulties. Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education created to prepare syllabii and conduct public examinations for Intermediate grade along with secondary schools.
(3) Three-year Degree course in place of a two-year course.	(3) Degree course extended to three years from 1961-62, but later this change suspended.

(4) Change of syllabii to bring education into line with modern requirements.	(4) A team of 300 teachers and specialists worked on revising the primary and secondary school curricula. School programmes now offer a diverse and enriched series of courses to correspond with social needs and individual aptitudes. They lay greater emphasis on technical and vocational subjects and on the dignity of labour. Some other changes are as follows: (i) science and technology students are now required to take a paper in civilisation and culture, and arts students take a paper in General Science. (ii) The quality of higher education is being raised so that university graduates can compete with the scholars produced by other systems. Seminars and tutorials have been made a compulsory part of higher education. There is greater emphasis on research work.
(iv) Opening of technical and agricultural institutes.	(iv) In each wing, one agricultural and one technical and engineering universities have been opened. Nineteen Polytechnic institutes have also been established.
(v) Emphasis on religious education. An Institute of Islamic Research to be established.	(v) Religious education has been made compulsory upto the secondary stage of education. The Institute of Islamic Research has also been set up.
(vi) National languages to be developed so as to replace English gradually and make them the media of instruction at all levels.	(vi) Primary and secondary education is now imparted in the national languages. At higher levels, most colleges and some universities (Rajshahi, Dacca and Karachi) have switched to Bengali and Urdu. Boards for promotion of Bengali and Urdu have been set up.

FEDERAL CAPITAL COMMISSION

Appointed: January 21, 1959.

Chairman: Maj-Gen. A. M. Yahya Khan, then Chief of the General Staff.

Report: June 12, 1959.

Terms of Reference:

To consider the suitability of Karachi as the capital of Pakistan "from the point of view of geographical location, communications, defence, climate and availability of a productive hinterland."

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
Karachi was found unsuitable as Pakistan's capital. Potwar plateau was selected as a suitable site.	(i) Pecommendation to shift Capital to Rotwar plateau accepted (June 1959). Capital provisionally shifted to Rawalpindi, to which the policy-making section of the administration was transferred in October 1959, followed later by other departments. (ii) Another Commission was set up (September 7, 1959) to prepare a master plan for the new Capital. The Capital was named Islamabad by Presidential Cabinet on 2nd February, 1960. The preliminary master plan was approved by the Cabinet on May 24, 1960, and the final plan in October 26, 1960, for an estimated population of 60,000. (iii) The Capital Development Authority drew up a five-year programme. Secretariat blocks and 6,000 residential quarters have already been constructed. (iv) Decision also taken to set up a subsidiary Capital at Dacca.

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION COMMISSION

Appointed: February 6, 1959.

Chairman: Mr. Akhtar Hussain, then Governor, West Pakistan.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To examine the respective spheres of responsibility of the provincial, divisional and district administrations with a view to determining whether they are suited

to regional needs and the public good keeping in view the general principle that matters directly affecting the life of people are to be dealt with expeditiously and as far as possible by competent local authorities so as to cause the least inconvenience to the public.

(2) To make such recommendations as may be necessary for the reconstitution of administrative divisions and districts into homogeneous areas invested with clear-cut authority and with the maximum delegation of authority along with adequate financial powers.

Recommendation :	*Implementation:*
(1) East Pakistan to adopt the revenue system of West Paktan; vertical distribution of authority from governor to divisional and district officers, with wide power to commissioner's and horizontal coordination of activities. Priorities of duties of district officers to be as follows: development and co-ordination of government activities, revenue, law and order.	(1) Most of it implemented or under implementation. A Commission was appointed to carry out the evaluation of powers to divisional and district heads; its report was approved.
(2) Karachi to continue to be centrally administered through the governor. A new division is to be formed in each wing, and some of the districts to be redemarcated.	(2) As recommended.

CREDIT ENQUIRY COMMISSION

Appointed : February 24, 1959.

Chairman : Mr. Abdul Qadir, then Governor, State Bank of Pakistan.

Report : September, 1959.

Terms of Reference :

(1) to examine the scope and the working of the agencies which provide credit facilities to agriculture, business and industry;

(2) to suggest measures to meet the agricultural and urban credit requirements of the country by improving existing facilities and creating new facilities wherever necessary, with special emphasis on agriculture, commerce and industry;

(3) to examine the special measures necessary in the credit field to ensure proper implementation of the land reforms approved by the Government;

(4) to examine the training facilities for banking within the country and to consider the feasibility of setting up an institution for such training.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Merger of Agricultural Development Finance Corporations and Agricultural Bank of Pakistan.	(1) The merger took place and the new institution, the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan, was established in 1961.
(2) Opening of a further 250 bank offices by the end of Second Five-Year Plan.	(2) More than 1,490 bank offices were opened by the end of the Plan.

JUTE ENQUIRY COMMISSION

Appointed: June 8, 1959.

Chairman: Mr. Zakir Hussain, then Governor East Pakistan.

Report: December 24, 1962.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To recommend the appropriate size of the jute crop to be grown during each of the next five years, having regard to requirements, both internal and external, price-levels and world trends in the use of jute, competing fibres and substitutes.

(2) To assess and advise on the areas where good quality jute should be grown with due regard to other land uses in the context of national economy.

(3) To make recommendations in order to maximise yields of superior jute and to lower costs of production through the use of improved seed and farming methods.

(4) To suggest measures to ensure stable price levels and a fair return to the grower, the stockist and the dealer.

(5) To examine existing arrangements for storage and marketing, including the financing and insurance of the crop, and suggest measures for improvement.

(6) To consider baling and transport facilities and make recommendations for their improvement.

(7) To study the existing system of private trading in jute and propose measures for improvement with particular reference to the elimination of malpractice in the jute export trade.

(8) To make recommendations regarding the grading of jute and the maintenance of quality.

(9) To examine the production, prices, marketing and export of jute goods and suggest steps for improvement.

(10) To assess the internal and external demand for jute goods over the next five years and recommend targets for the production of hessian, bags, sacking and other jute manufactures.

(11) To consider and make recommendations on the desirability of providing facilities for research into new uses of jute in industry.

(12) To study the existing governmental procedures and agencies dealing with the

growing and marketing of jute and the production of jute goods and to advise on the need for change, if any.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) A high powered central authority to deal with all aspects of jute to be set up.	(1) The Jute Board has been invested with vast powers and functions to act as the executive agent to the central government in all matters relating to jute. The Jute Directorate of the Government of East Pakistan was taken over by the Board. In addition, two separate divisions were created to look after external marketing and industries, research and statistics.
(2) The size of Pakistan's jute crop to be about 8 million bales.	(2) The target was fixed at eight million bales but actual production fell short by 1.5 million bales.
(3) In low-lying areas where jute grows well and no other crop can safely be grown, the cultivation of jute to be encouraged without any restriction.	(3) Restrictions were removed on such areas as recommended.
(4) The programme of seed multiplication and distribution as envisaged in the Second Five-Year Plan to be pursued.	(4) The seed multiplication programme was speeded up during the period in conjunction with the Provincial Department of Agriculture.
(5) More attention to be given by the Jute Research Institute to the breeding of disease resistant varieties.	(5) Action taken as recommended.
(6) Grade of jute to be standardised and enforced in all the baling centres. Purchase on assortment to be made obligatory in these centres.	(6) Jute Board is to decide as to what agency it would employ for enforcing this recommendation.
(7) All Pakistani exporters who want to open offices abroad to be permitted to do so and foreign exchange to be made available to them for this purpose.	(7) State Bank allowed opening of offices by individual shippers depending on the volume of their business and in consultation with the Jute Board.
(8) The present system of function-wise and station-wise licencing of jute dealers to be simplified. One dealer should have to take only one licence for all his operations throughout the province.	(8) Action taken as recommended.

SCIENTIFIC COMMISSION

Appointed: June 15, 1959.

Chairman: Mr. Abul Kasem Khan, then Minister for Industries.

Report: September 2, 1960.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To consider how best scientific research can be promoted and integrated.
(2) To consider ways and means for providing adequate facilities to the various research organisations of the country and ensuring the utilisation of the results of their research for the over-all development of the country.
(3) To consider ways and means of making the scientific career attractive and comparable, in respect of emoluments and status, with other services of equal national importance.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Priority to strengthen scientific efforts in the universities; larger grants to achieve this end.	(1) (i) Increased finances have been placed at the disposal of universities, councils and other scientific organisations. (ii) Second Five-Year Plan provided for full time research professorships in the principal universities and technical institutions throughout the country. (iii) Third Five-Year Plan makes provision for improvement of quality, expansion of facilities for study and research, and consolidation of available facilities in the universities. (iv) There is a scheme to establish an Atomic Energy Centre on the Karachi University Campus at a cost of Rs 4.6 million to undertake research seeking new methods of applying atomic energy to industrial and economic progress.
(2) Universities primarily to undertake scientific research of a fundamental character, leaving applied research to government sponsored research councils.	(2) (i) Institutes of Applied Research are to be set up in selected universities which would provide further facilities for fundamental research at the university level.

	(ii) Third Plan also provides for the expansion of the activities of government sponsored research councils for undertaking research on such subjects as fuels, minerals, building materials, food technology and leather.
(3) Biological subjects such as biophysics, soil sciences, geology, mining, meteorology and chemical and public health engineering, architecture, town planning to be included as subjects in universities.	(3) (i) The subjects have now been introduced in the syllabi of almost all universities. (ii) Two Agricultural Universities were set up in 1962 which provide specialised courses in agricultural sciences, agricultural engineering and soil sciences. (iii) Similarly, two Engineering and Technological Universities were set up in 1962 to impart training in specialised fields.
(4) Working procedures in the scientific departments be streamlined and more administrative and financial powers given to heads of scientific departments.	(4) A separate Division for Scientific and Technological Research has been created in the central government to consolidate ministerial responsibility. The Division draws up and implements scientific policies, and promotes scientific activities on a national scale as well as utilisation of the fruit of research. The liberal grants to universities and yearly allocations to research councils are placed at the disposal of Head of the Department.
(5) Creation of a separate cadre for scientists.	(5) The question is under consideration of the Government.
(6) The functions of the Pakistan Central Cotton and Jute Committees to be taken over by the reconstituted Agricultural Research Council.	(6) The Food and Agricultural Council was replaced in November, 1964 by the Agricultural Research Council which took over the functions of Cotton and Jute Committees.
(7) The Medical Research Council to be reconstituted into an autonomous body and charged with the duty of setting up three specialised institutes, namely, an Institute of Tropical Diseases; an Institute of Hygiene and Public Health, and an Institute of Medical Research.	(7) The Medical Research Council has been reconstituted. It has a scheme for setting up a Medical Research Institute at Dacca at a cost of over 60 million rupees. It has already set up two research centres at Dacca and Lahore; has financed 20 schemes relating to medical research on various diseases, and is considering measures for stepping up medical research in the country.

(8) Council of Scientific and Industrial Research to work on a co-ordinated programme of training of research workers in different fields.	(8) The council has engaged over 700 scientists and sent 300 young men abroad for advanced studies or training in science and technology. It intends to send another 300 abroad for advanced training during the current Five-Year Plan.
(9) The Atomic Energy Commission to make up leeway in nuclear research, and establish an Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology in addition to its laboratories where radio-isotopes and radiation sources can be effectively developed for use in agriculture, industry and science.	(9) An Institute of Nuclear Science and Technology has been set up at Nilore near Islamabad and is expected to be fully completed by 1970. It will also have research laboratories. The swimming pool type reactor split its first atom in December, 1965.
(10) Research to be conducted on utilisation of plant material and the possibilities of improvement in the nutritional value of food crops.	(10) The Council has evolved some protein-rich foods from fish and vegetable wastes; a drug, namely "Serpajmaline" for the treatment of high blood pressure and heart disease; and vitamin "A" concentrate from fish liver oil, etc.
(11) All resources to generate electricity to be tapped, including nuclear power wherever economically possible.	(11) The Five-Year Plans have aimed at providing low cost electric power in order to accelerate and strengthen agricultural and industrial development. A nuclear power plant project is now in hand and is expected to be completed before the end of the current Plan.
(12) A separate organisation to be set up for defence research.	(12) Research in defence science has been entrusted to an independent organisation under the Ministry of Defence and is headed by a Scientific Adviser.
(13) Pakistan National Scientific and Technical Documentation Centre (PANSDOC) to establish branches at Lahore and Dacca.	(13) This has been done.
(14) Separate research councils be set up for works and housing, irrigation, drainage and flood control.	(14) These councils have been set up.

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE COMMISSION

Appointed : July 8, 1959.

Chairman : Malik Amir Mohammad Khan, then Governor West Pakistan.

Report : November 29, 1960.

Terms of Reference :

(1) Evaluation of past and current developmental activities and methods in agriculture and of the incentives with which cultivators have to increase production, for the purpose of determining the principal reasons which have accounted for the slow progress in agricultural production, particularly food crops.

(2) Fixation of production goals for foodgrains and major non-food crops in the light of their comparative net value per acre in terms of both rupees and of foreign exchange earned or saved, their comparative claims on the limited water supply and the development of the market for them at home and abroad.

(3) In the light of its evaluation of past experience and its determination of desirable production targets, the Commission will recommend:

i) changes in the orientation and focus of the agricultural development effort;

ii) measures to strengthen the organisation and personnel charged with responsibility for agricultural development at the Centre and the Provinces, including any redefinition of the responsibilities of the Centre and the Provinces;

iii) measures to provide cultivators with greater incentives and means to raise their output and income, including those pertaining to taxation, pricing and procurement policies, subsidies, credit and marketing;

iv) improvements in agricultural education and research, and in the methods and organisation for transmitting the knowledge of better agricultural practices to the cultivators through the agricultural extension services, and other corresponding organisations.

v) revisions in policies and methods of colonising new lands and maximising production thereon;

(4) ways and means for obtaining more effective government administration and organisation of the agricultural effort and achieving better management of the land by organising the cultivators into co-operatives or other forms of profit-sharing schemes for carrying out certain common activities.

(5) The Commission shall make a study of the cost, methods and policies relating to the procurement, distribution and storage of food with a view to making recommendations which will reconcile, as far as possible, the need for a continuous supply of food to the consumer at reasonable and stable prices and the need to provide adequate incentives to the cultivator to grow more food.

(6) While the Commission will concentrate primarily on ways and means to increase, more rapidly, the production of agricultural crops and particularly food crops, it is authorised to extend its inquiry into related fields of forestry, animal husbandry and fisheries for the purpose of viewing the activities in this entire field in proper perspective and in relationship to each other.

(7) In carrying out its work, the Commission will take into account the limitations on resources in terms of finances, personnel and administration which may particularly govern what can be undertaken in the sphere of agricultural development and will work out recommendations which will make the most economical use of these limited resources.

(8) In discharging its responsibilities, the Commission will work in close co-operation with the Planning Commission. It will recommend specific measures for increasing agricultural production and for effective implementation of agricultural development programmes and will also, where necessary, suggest changes in policies or emphasis in carrying out the existing development Plans.

Recommendation :	*Implementation* :
(1) Two autonomous Agricultural Development Corporations, one in each wing, to be set up to organise supplies needed by the farmer and to provide them with technical knowledge.	(1) The Corporations were set up in September-October, 1961. A sum of Rs 1,100 million was earmarked for the two Corporations in the Second Plan. The Corporations organize essential supplies to the farmers and provide them with technical knowledge for increasing production.
(2) Production and sale of good quality seed, extensive use of fertiliser, modernisation of agriculture and village extension service units through Agricultural Development Corporations.	(2) Progress has been made in distribution of improved seeds. The use of fertiliser is increasing rapidly. (During 1964-65, the increase was by 332 percent over 1959-60). Mechanization programme, consisting mainly of land development and tractor-cultivation in West Pakistan and use of power pumps for irrigation and tractor-cultivation in East Pakistan, has been launched by the Corporations.
(3) A Research Council to be established on the lines of the present Food & Agriculture Council, in a reorganised and expanded form, for planning and co-ordinating research on a national basis.	(3) The Food and Agricultural Council was reorganized as the Agricultural Research Council for organising, co-ordinating and promoting scientific research in agriculture and its allied fields.
(4) Two Agricultural Universities, one at Lyallpur in West and the other at Mymensingh in East Pakistan be set up as recommended by the Education Commission.	(4) Set up in 1961.
(5) Crash food production programmes in selected districts to serve as model and experiment.	(5) Crash programmes were launched in some districts of East and West Pakistan.

(6) Taxation to be replaced by a fixed rate of land tax per acre, irrespective of whether the land is cropped or not. Variation in land tax rate to be by zones and not by plots. Export duties on agricultural produce to be re-examined since they acted as a disincentive.	(6) Commission's recommendations are under study.
(7) The development of co-operatives both for marketing and for production to be entrusted to Agricultural Development Corporations.	(7) In implementing the co-operative programmes, the Agricultural Development Finance Corporation (established in 1952) was merged in 1960-61 with the Agricultural Bank of Pakistan (established in 1957) and the unified organisation, named the Agricultural Development Bank of Pakistan was entrusted with this task.
(8) Priority to be given to drainage	(8) As recommended.

PAY & SERVICE COMMISSION

Appointed : August 31, 1959.

Chairman : Mr. Justice A. R. Cornellius, Judge, Supreme Court.

Report : June 1, 1962.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To review the structure and organisation of the public services and methods of recruitment relating to the civil services and establishments of all grades under the control of the Central Government including railway services, and those paid from the Defence Service Establishments and to suggest measures designed to secure maximum efficiency and economy in administration.

(2) To enquire into the emoluments and other terms and conditions of service of the personnel referred to in paragraph (1) and keeping in view the economic conditions and financial resources of the country, to report on the extent to which existing emoluments and other conditions of service require modification.

Recommendation :	*Implementation* :
(1) A seven-tier public service structure beginning with 'unskilled' and 'semi-skilled' through 'basic Officers' topped by a single Pakistan Administrative service.	(1) Basic Recommendations as to structure not accepted.

(2) Suggested pay scales meant the expenditure of an extra Rs 100 million.	(2) Pay scales raised roughly to the extent suggested.

LAW REFORM COMMISSION

Appointed : September 15, 1959.

Chairman : Mr. Justice S. A. Rahman.

Report : December 27, 1959.

Terms of Reference :

To suggest how justice may better and more speedily be done; and to that end to examine :

(1) the hierarchy of the courts and their powers;
(2) the making of judicial appointments;
(3) the standard and content of legal education and qualifications for practice at the Bar;
(4) the structure and discipline of the legal profession;
(5) the law of civil and criminal procedure and the law of evidence;
(6) the Jirga and Panchayat system and their extension to suitable areas;
(7) The cost of litigation; and any other relevant matters.

Recommendation :	*Implementation* :
(1) Committee to be set up to revise and consolidate laws. Also appointment of an Islamic Laws Commission.	(1) Ten Ordinances were issued to streamline the administration of justice.
(2) Special courts for delinquents.	(2) A Probation of Offenders Ordinance, 1960, was promulgated which laid more emphasis on corrective treatment of offenders than on punishment. It provided that a court, having regard to the circumstances, the nature of the offence, the age and character of the offender, may, instead of sentencing the offender at once, make a probation order, that is, simply require the person to be put on probation for a specified period under the care of a Probation Officer.
(3) Simplification of procedure, and cutting down delays in litigation.	(3) Necessary amendments made in the Civil Procedure Code.
(4) Extension of the jurisduction of West Pakistan High Court to Baluchistan.	(4) Implemented.

(5) Desirability of lower level judicial tribunals to deal with cases arising in local areas.	(5) Petty cases arising in local areas are in some cases tried by union and panchayat councils. 'Jirga' trial has been extended to major cities in West Pakistan.

COMPANY LAW COMMISSION

Appointed : October 15, 1959.

Chairman : Late Mr. I. I. Chundrigar, later Mr. Sharifuddin Pirzada.

Report : December 15, 1961.

Teams of Reference :

The Commission was required to examine the provisions of the Companies Act with a view to suggesting modifications to safeguard the interest of the investing public and to making this form of business organisation more attractive to them and to suggest modifications whereby the degree of control by the share-holders could be increased without detriment to the efficiency of the management.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Changes in the working and organisation of limited companies in Pakistan and also in the law governing them, with a view to safeguarding the interests of investors and making the joint-stock form of business organisation more popular and better suited to the changing requirements of the country's growing economy.	(1) Government has recently decided to re-enact the existing company law and replace the Pakistan Companies Act in the light of the commission's recommendation. The draft law is being submitted to a sub-committee of the cabinet.

COMMITTEE ON SPORTS, CULTURE, YOUTH MOVEMENT AND ART.

Appointed : December 10, 1959.

Chairman : Mr. Habibur Rahman, then Education Minister.

Report : August 6, 1960.

Terms of Reference :

(1) To enquire into the needs and requirements of the nation in the fields of sports, culture, art and literature.

(2) The committee will investigate the extent and methods of Government participa-

tion in sport, culture and the arts and will suggest methods for improving the present standard of sport, cultural and youth organisations, play grounds, stadium, gymnasia, public halls, youth hostels, art galleries, stages for dramatic performances and recreation camps.

(3) To enquire into the question of availability of funds and the steps necessary to augment present resources and to make suggestions for elevating the present standard of sport, culture, arts and the youth movement.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Expansion of facilities for sports and cultural activities.	(1) Cricket coaching centres opened at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca.
(2) Organisation of various sports, cultural and youth centers in the country.	(2) Youth hostels set up in both East and West Pakistan; art clubs and cultural societies organised.

POLICE COMMISSION

Appointed : December 31, 1959.

Chairman : Mr. Justice G. B. Constantine.

Report : May 19, 1961.

Terms of Reference :

(1) To report whether the police forces of the country as at present organised, are adequate in number and quality to discharge efficiently their responsibility to the people of the country. If not, what changes are required in their organisation, strength, training and equipment?

(2) To enquire into the capacity of the police forces to maintain law and order and to prevent, investigate and detect crimes and to suggest ways and means of improvement.

(3) To examine the relationship between (1) the police and the people and (2) the police and the magistracy and to suggest ways and means of creating better and healthier co-operation.

(4) To consider whether there should be different types of police functioning in different areas under the Basic Democracies. And if so, what should be their organisation, method of recruitment, standards of training and how should their activities be co-ordinated with one another?

Should this be integrated under a unified system of operational control by the head of the regional police and if so, how? The Commission should also take into account the various recommendations of the Law Commission which have a bearing on police matters.

(5) To consider whether changes are required in the present structure of the Police organisation, with special reference to the existing mode of promotion to the senior scale of the police service.

(6) What are the existing welfare measures for the force and what extra amenities

consistent with the limitations of our financial resources need be provided?

(7) To examine the question of a bifurcation between law and other functions of the police and their investigation and prosecution functions so that two separate sections of the police force deal with them.

(8) To examine the question of the standard of the integrity achieved by the present police forces and to suggest improvements.

(9) To examine whether there is any overlapping in the functions of various branches of the police *e.g.* CID, CIA and branches.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Competitive Examinations for recruitment of ASP and SI.	(1) Main recommendations being implemented.
(2) Close co-operation between municipality and police.	
(3) Abolition of West Pakistan Provincial Armed Reserve.	
(4) Training of police service personnel at Civil Service Academy.	
(5) Reduction of difference of pay between CSP and PSP.	
(6) Need for greater co-operation between the police and the public.	

CONSTITUTION COMMISSION

Appointed : February 17, 1960.

Chairman : Mr. Justice Shahabuddin, Judge, Supreme Court.

Report : May 16, 1961.

Terms of Reference :

(1) To examine the progressive failure of parliamentary government in Pakistan leading to the abrogation of the constitution of 1956 and to determine the causes of the failure.

(2) To consider how best the said or like causes may be identified and their recurrence prevented.

(3) To submit constitutional proposals in the form of a report advising how best the following ends may be secured:

(a) a democracy adapted to changing circumstances and based on the Islamic principles of justice, equality and tolerance;

(b) the consolidation of national unity; and a firm and stable system of government.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Presidential form, strong central executive with a quasi-federal structure.	(1) Presidential form, federal structure and strong centre ensured through the new Constitution.
(2) Bicameral legislature, independent of executive and the post of vice-President.	(2) Bicameral legislature introduced; post of vice-President not created.
(3) Direct election on restricted franchise basis.	(3) Franchise question was left to parliament which decided (April, 1964) in favour of indirect system.

COMMISSION ON PRICE STRUCTURE

Appointed : February 18, 1960.

Chairman : Mr. I. I. Chundrigar, one time Prime Minister, and Advocate.

Report : July 3, 1960.

Terms of Reference :

(1) To examine the rising trend in prices.
(2) To investigate the causes of this trend and to suggest remedial measures.

Recommendation :	*Implementation :*
(1) Gradual, systematic removal of price control.	(1) Gradually removed and control on several commodities lifted altogether.
(2) Liberalisation of import of consumer goods.	(2) Most consumer goods placed on open General License (OGL).

FILM FACT FINDING COMMITTEE

Appointed : March 10, 1960.

Chairman : Mr. N. M. Khan, Secretary and Director-General, Project Division.

Report : April 4, 1961.

Terms of Reference :

(1) to investigate the working of the film industry and identify the problems facing it;
(2) to make suggestions for the solution of these problems;
(3) to suggest ways and means for improving the industry and, in this connection, to deal with proposals for the production of films in collaboration with producers in other countries;

(4) to examine measures to be adopted to enable the film industry to develop into a medium for the promotion of national culture and education, and provide healthy entertainment at the same time; and

(5) to give any further views conducive to the above objectives.

Recommendation :	*Implementation* :
(1) Complete ban on the import of Indian films for at least five years.	(1) Import of Indian films accordingly banned.
(2) The number of cinemas should be increased by a hundred per cent and 80 to 100 cinema houses should be built each year for the next five years.	(2) They are increasing rapidly.
(3) At least 200 films should be produced annually.	(3) Some 60 films are now produced every year in nine studios.
(4) Suggested the establishment of a National Film Development Corporation with an initial capital of Rs 20 million.	(4) A Central Advisory Council set up (March 1961) for co-ordinating all matters relating to film industry. There is already a Film Development Corporation in East Pakistan.
(5) 40 per cent of the playing time should be reserved for Pakistani films.	(5) As recommended.
(6) Other recommendations: setting up of a National Academy of Music; national awards to individuals rendering outstanding services to the film industry; national and international film festivals should be held in the country.	(6) International film festivals were held, in 1965, at Karachi, Lahore and Dacca. A national film festival was also held and prizes for the best filming, direction and acting were awarded.

SURPLUS MANPOWER COMMISSION

Appointed : October 18, 1960.

Chairman : Maj. Gen. Fazl-e-Muqeem Khan.

Report : July 7, 1961.

Terms of Reference :

(1) to determine a definition of surplus manpower for the purpose of assignment, and to assess generally the extent of surplus manpower available at different periods of the year in different sections of the population;

(2) to formulate proposals for the organisational set-up rquired at different levels for

utilisation of surplus manpower;

(3) to recommend measures for the utilisation of different categories of surplus manpower and to give an idea of the likely cost and economy;

(4) to suggest what kind of disciplinary courts should be set up to deal with delinquents;

(5) to recommend a systematic programme for developing a continuous flow of information on the shifting trends of unemployed manpower, and further to recommend means for its utilisation;

(6) to examine the avenues of anticipated employment in the immediate future with a view to making plans for the training of unemployed manpower;

(7) to examine the possibility of co-ordinating existing training facilities in the country.

Recommendation :

(1) Mostly the recommendations were of general nature, and related to the measures to be adopted for the utilisation of surplus manpower, particularly of rural areas.

Implementation :

(1) An inter-departmental body called the 'Civil Works Board' was set up within the National Manpower Council to evolve and co-ordinate implementation policies and programmes and to harmonise functions of other agencies relating to utilisation of surplus manpower. This organisation has been entrusted with the task of following up the work of the Surplus Manpower Commission. It has recommended the constitution of provincial employment boards at Lahore and Dacca. At Lahore, the Board has already been formed which is currently considering pilot projects in suitable areas with a view to providing employment through activities in agricultural, industrial and other related fields. The central Civil Works Board has also recommended setting up of study groups to identify labour-intensive techniques of production in agriculture, manufacturing, construction and services sector. Other recommendations include formation of voluntary corps of workers in rural areas.

COMMISSION ON ERADICATION OF SOCIAL EVILS

Appointed : January 13, 1961.

Chairman : Moulvi Ghulam Mohiyuddin Khan Kasuri; later, Prof. A.B.A. Haleem.

Report : June 18, 1963.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To examine the nature and origin of those social customs and practices prevalent in the country conducive to an uneasy in society or economically oppressive and forming obstacles to individual welfare and social progress, and to assess the extent of their effect on individual and social life.

(2) To examine the measures so far adopted by Government, or other agencies, to combat those practice and to assess the effect of these measures.

(3) To examine and analyse the factors responsible for the continuance of these practices and for resistance encountered in combating them, if any.

(4) To suggest ways and means of:

(a) minimising the effects of social evils and economically oppressive customs as a short-term measure; and

(b) eradicating them completely as a long-term measure.

Recommendation :	*Implementation* :
(1) Restricted invitations on the occasion of marriage, birth and death ceremonies to minimise such expenditure and creation of public opinion against such extravagance.	(1) West Pakistan Food Economy Order (April 2, 1967) restricts the number of guests to 25 persons in case of private persons and 200 persons in case of marriage parties and receptions.
(2) (i) Deterrent punishment for persons guilty of using children for beggary.	(2) (i) Existing acts in this regard are being strictly enforced.
(ii) Healthy recreational arrangements.	(ii) Many recreational centres for children opened.
(3) Ban on beggary and establishing of institutions and agencies to tackle the problem.	(3) A survey of beggary has been carried out in West Pakistan and positive measures for their employment are being taken. Some vagrants homes have also been established in both the wings where able-bodied beggars are given training in productive occupations.
(4) Ban also recommended on gambling, betting, importation of obscene, and objectionable	(4) Prostitution was banned in West Pakistan in September, 1964. Steps have been taken for rehabilitation of prostitutes.

films, intoxicants and prostitution. As a positive measure, to wean people away from gambling, Prize Bonds scheme recommended. For checking objectionable foreign films, Film Censor Board was to be reconstituted.

People are encouraged to invest money in 'Prize Bonds'. The Film Censor Board was reconstituted.

FINANCE COMMISSION

Appointed: December 12, 1961.

Chairman: Mr. H. A. Majid, Secretary, Finance (Economic Affairs Division)

Report : January 15, 1962.

Terms of Reference:

To examine the problem of allocation of resources between the centre and the provinces.

Recommendation:

(1) A larger share of the proceeds of central taxes and duties should accrue to the provinces.

(2) The debt liability of the provinces as on the last day of June 1961, except that relating to foreign loans, should be written down by 50 per cent and

Implementation :

(1) A Presidential Order called the Distribution of Revenues and Consolidation and Repayment of Loans Order, 1962 was promulgated with effect from July 1, 1962. It allowed the following assignments to the provinces from the proceeds of the central taxes:
   - (i) Tax on income (including corporation tax) 50 per cent.
   - (ii) Sales Tax 60 per cent.
   - (iii) Federal Excise Duties on betelnuts, tobacco and tea, 60 per cent.
   - (iv) Export Duties on Jute and Cotton, 100 per cent.
   - (v) Estate and succession Duties in respect of agricultural land, 100 per cent.
   - (vi) Taxes on the capital value of immovable property, 100 per cent.

(2) Implemented accordingly.

Recommendation	Implementation
the balance consolidated into a single loan bearing interest at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and repayable over 25 years.	
(3) In the formulation, revision, and implementation of development plans, the aim should be to remove the disparity in per capita income between regions within a Province.	(3) Both in the Second as well as the Third Plan various measures for the removal of such disparity were taken.

NATIONAL INCOME COMMISSION

Appointed: April 3, 1963.

Chairman: Mr. Abdul Qadir, former Finance Minister.

Report: November 13, 1963.

Terms of Reference:

(1) To examine the available data and the requirements for compilation of the national income statistics;
(2) to recommend ways and means of collecting accurate and further data required for preparation of national income statistics;
(3) to report on suitable classifications under which national income statistics should be prepared, keeping in view particularly the need for separate statistics for the two provinces and for areas in different stages of development, within the provinces, so as to assist the National Economic Council in fulfilling the obligations placed on it under article 145 (4) of the Constitution;
(4) to recommend lines of guidance to the Central Statistical Organisation for setting up national statistical procedure;
(5) to make recommendations regarding the promotion of research in the field of national income statistics.

Recommendation:	*Implementation*:
(1) Agriculture: collection of data, classification of crops, frequency of random sample surveys, co-ordination of estimates between various Central and provincial government departments, pricing of agricultural commodities, collection of data in respect of non-reporting areas, studies of production, costs, and data in	(1) The Commission submitted its final report in 1966. Considerable further work is proceeding on national income estimates in the light of detailed data collected on large-scale industrial production, rural construction and other sectors of the economy and it is quite probable that all this information will undergo further revision.

respect of livestock and fisheries.

(2) Minerals: Determination of income after deduction of necessary costs and depreciation allowances.

(3) Industries: Under-coverage in censuses of manufacturing industries. About small-scale industries, a uniform definition of small-scale units should be used by the East Pakistan Small Industries Corporation and the West Pakistan Industrial Development Corporation.

(4) Construction: A comprehensive study of the investment should be made.

(5) Transportation: Improvement in the income data on transport services.

(6) Trade: Estimate of value to be worked out from the price spread between growers and consumers of major commodities.

QUOTATIONS FROM THE PRESIDENT

In the following pages are reproduced selected passages from President Ayub's speeches and writings. They reflect his thinking on national and international problems and the objectives to be attained.

Political System

Failure of British Pattern

The British parliamentary system which we inherited and later adopted in the Constitution of 1956 is largely an un-written law and takes for granted too many pre-requisites which do not really exist in a country like Pakistan. Our rate of literacy is appallingly low. Our means of communication are poor, even primitive. The rural population which constitutes over 80 per cent of the total is hardly touched by the world outside the villages.

An average villager with little or no education has no means of gaining any personal knowledge about a candidate who is mixed up in a population of 1000,000 or more, spread over a large area without any advanced means of communication and contact. Votes cast under these circumstances cannot but be vague, wanton and responsive to fear, coercion, temptation and other modes of misguidance. This is exactly what had been happening in Pakistan. Whenever elections were held, they could be easily manipulated to return candidates with power to influence, money to bribe and nuisance value to coerce. Conditions such as these reduce the practice of democracy to a farce.

Democracy

The revolution of October 7, 1958, was not aimed against the institution of democracy as such. No, it was only against the manner in which its institutions were being worked. There are two main reasons why we in Pakistan cannot but adhere to a democratic pattern of life and government. In the first place, as Muslims, we are brought up on two basic ingredients of democracy, namely, equality and fraternity. Anything to the contrary would be the negation of our spiritual practice. And, secondly, we have to fight a long and arduous battle for progress and development in which every man, woman and child of Pakistan must participate to the fullest possible extent. Democracy provides the only healthy and dignified way for arousing the willing co-operation of people and harness it to a sustained national endeavour.

Political Party

To be of any effect, a political party should start from the hard core of a village, and through a closely knit system of elections at all

intermediary levels, should work its way to the highest rung. Apart from organizational neatness, this is perhaps the safest way to ensure that leadership grows with the consent of the people and inspires confidence. This can happen only if it is not super-imposed artificially from above.

Leadership

Leadership would now be judged not in terms of acres of land but by the highest standards of human values.

The time-worn concept that leadership belongs to the realm of ministerial chairs and high-powered public offices is a dangerous fallacy. Leadership is a more universal trait and operates in every high or low station of life.

The State and the People

The State owes a singular and specific duty to its people. "The essence of *Tauhid* (Unity of God) as a working idea is equality, solidity and freedom," according to Iqbal. "The State from the Islamic standpoint is an endeavour to transform these ideals into space-time forces, an aspiration to realize them in a definite human organisation." It is this sort of human organisation which Pakistan aspires to become and one of my endeavours is to clear at least a part of the way by liberating the basic concept of our ideology from the dust of vagueness and ambiguities it has accumulated over the years.

The implements for the achievement of our targets are: responsible leadership; competent legislators; strong and stable governments; powerful defence forces; clean and quick administration; cheap and ready justice; multi-dimensional programmes of development in education, industry, commerce, agriculture; and a relentless passion for work, ceaseless work and nothing but work.

I would like to assure the minority communities in Pakistan that we will use all the resources of the state to provide them full security and freedom to pursue their avocations and their faith.

Nationhood

Prior to 1947, our nationalism was based more on an idea than on any territorial definition. Till then, ideologically we were Muslims; territorially we happened to be *Indians*: and parochially we were a conglomeration of at least eleven smaller, provincial loyalties. But when suddenly Pakistan emerged as a reality, we, who had got together from every nook and corner of the vast subcontinent, were faced with the task of transforming all our traditional, territorial and parochial loyalties into one great loyalty for the new state of Pakistan. This process of metamorphism was naturally attended by difficult psychological and emotional strains which we have borne in full measure and are still bearing.

I believe that Allah, in His infinite mercy, created Pakistan to give the Muslims of these regions a homeland in which to mould their

lives in accordance with the fundamental principles and the spirit of Islam.

It is no use being a big industrialist, a big businessman, or a big administrator unless, at the same time, you are also a good man, a good citizen and a good neighbour. Unless you are a good human being, you cannot be a good Pakistani.

Religion

How is it that Islam, which when it came was regarded as the most revolutionary gospel that was produced for mankind and its guidance, flourished for two or three hundred years, but the Muslims today are the most backward communities in the world? What is it that went wrong? One thing which comes quite clearly to one's mind is that somehow or the other we missed that spirit of our philosophy.

Most religions have tended to be shrouded in formalism and dogma, and their exponents have frowned upon attempts to face the challenges of the modern times. This has fostered a growing aversion to religion among the younger generation.

Traditionalism *Vs* Change

What use we make of our freedom will depend primarily on how we conduct ourselves in the realm of thought, for it is ideas which generate action.

Traditions must not become lifeless statues to worship and adore. They should be used as the base for raising new structures of knowledge and accomplishment.

To liberate the spirit of religion from the cobwebs of superstition and stagnation which surround it and move it forward under the focus of modern science and knowledge is, therefore, one of the major demands on our system of education.

I believe that real fullness of life can be achieved only by bringing about a workable and effective balance and co-ordination between the forces of religion, philosophy and science.

On the one hand, we have science probing into the atom and space and outer-space and opening up new domains of knowledge which can energise, enrich and illuminate human life to an incredible extent; on the other, we have the sorry spectacle of men and nations pouncing on each new discovery to covert it into a weapon of threat and destruction. This does reflect a serious imbalance between the material progress and moral culture of the man of today.

Culture

The artist is faced with significant choices and challenges all the world over. I have no doubt that the Pakistani artist can resolve

many of his problems by being sensitive to the rhythm of life around him. By responding to the world of line, colour and tone of his own country he can acquire a sense of belonging and thus be a positive force for unity and cohesion.

Art brings to life a sense of creative joy, harmony, and achievement. It discovers in human experience dignity, beauty and moral significance. In his own search for design and form, the artist interprets and shapes the cultural life of the people. In doing so, he reflects their innermost feelings, hopes and aspirations.

Pakistan's cultural history bears eloquent testimony to the artistic and creative genius of countless generations of men who had come from many different parts of the world. It is only by identifying and understanding these periods of creative history that we can fully visualize the vast cultural perspective of Pakistan.

In building up national awareness and understanding, full opportunities should be provided for the preservation and growth of regional cultures, languages and ways of life. They constitute the solid infrastructure of a nation's cultural life. They contribute to it, like tributaries to the main stream, a profound richness and diversity that make for dynamism.

Education

Our educational system was designed and devised to meet an entirely different set of conditions; it needed to be revised to meet the requirements of a free nation. We want to produce men and women who can undertake the wide and varied responsiblilities which fall on the citizens of a free country, persons of character, capable of thinking fearlessly, and having a high sense of duty.

Of all the reforms which have been introduced in Pakistan, I feel personally proud of our educational reforms.

Economic Development

No democratic system can be completed unless and until political democracy is accompanied by economic and social democracy. Political democracy only teaches the method of government, but the life of man goes beyond the limits of government or governance.

Our objective is to arrive at a synthesis between economic dynamism and social justice so that the fruits of development can filter down to the masses of our people.

Our approach to economic planning has been pragmatic all along.

In a poor economy like ours people do not generally indulge in the luxury of asking ideological questions. They are far too preoccupied in the desperate struggle for survival. What matters to them is the visible impact of economic development on their daily

lives, not theologies of capitalism or socialism. Only if the new class of entrepreneur, grown rapidly rich, refrains from conspicuous consumption and ostentatious living and reinvests the profits in expansion and new enterprises will it be acceptable to society; the pursuit of private profits must proceed within the framework of national interests.

There have been no grand experiments in nationalization, no fancy slogans about socialism, no undue intervention in the private sector. In fact, the Government has gradually removed most of the administrative and bureaucratic controls which hampered progress of the private sector. Over 90 per cent of total national production is actually in private hands.

The greatest asset of our nation is the farmer, who lives in the village in modest surroundings. The wealth of the nation is composed of what the farmer produces. Our objective is to improve the standard of living of the tiller of the soil by raising per capita production and thus the wealth of the nation.

The problem of land reforms is fundamental to all development. Nearly 90 per cent of our people live in rural areas and about 75 per cent of them depend on agriculture. About 60 per cent of the national income is derived from it. The economic and social status of an overwhelming part of our population must be raised if an independent Pakistan is to have any meaning for them.

To bring about an increase in agricultural production, it is not enough to put into operation the labour of the farmer. The skills of the agricultural expert, the extension workers, the credit machinery, the marketing organisation and the water and power engineer, must be mobilised in aid of the effort of the farmer.

In the race between food supply and a progressively growing population, we may have to run twice as fast in order merely to stay where we are. Family Planning is a long-term process, so the sooner we address ourselves to it the better.

My Government feels that ultimately industries may have to work on a run-as-you-earn basis or face stagnation. Government on its part has given the necessary incentives to export in the form of rebates of import duties, sales tax and excise duty. In addition, exporters of industrial products are given entitlement of foreign exchange under the Export Bonus Scheme. I am confident that if industries embark on a vigorous and imaginative production and export drive, many of the problems now facing them and the country will be solved. For further investment, liberal tax concessions have also been announced and foriegn capital have been given all possible safeguards and very

attractive terms.

It is wrong to suppose that there is a ceaseless clash of interests between the labour and management. On the contrary, they are part and parcel of a joint endeavour, in which both must clearly and realistically recognise their limitations and responsibilities.

Foreign Aid and Trade.

I must confess that I am disappointed that industrialized nations on the whole have failed to meet the challenge of the times, which is to ensure the minimum economic development of two-thirds of the world.

It is not only the quantum of assistance but also the terms on which such assistance is provided that is of fundamental importance. And yet today we see the spectacle of tied loans and of loans which are little more than suppliers' credit and whose main purpose is to promote the exports of industrialized countries under the umberlla of aid. I am not denying that even this form of assistance has played a useful role. But let us not forget the strain this places on the economies of developing countries.

I would be lacking in frankness, however, if I were to gloss over the fact that political considerations do play a part in foreign aid. But friendship bought with foreign aid can be no substitute for understanding based on common interests and mutual respect.

It is our belief that the economic emancipation of Pakistan and of other under-developed countries will contribute not only to their well-being but to the growth of the world economy as a whole, and will strengthen the fabric of international peace and understanding. It is on this basis that we seek and accept assistance from foreign countries in our development efforts and it is in this spirit, we hope, that it is given. Large as it looms on our horizon at present, foreign assistance plays only a supplementary role. The key to progress is self-reliance. Economic self-reliance is also the key to independence in the political field.

We are just as keen as our fiends abroad to bring our dependence on foreign assistance to a speedy end, but this much desired consummation can be achieved only, if we are enabled to enter freely the markets of the Western world. A world where quota restrictions and tariff walls are raised against the products of poorer economies will not only be an inhuman world; it will also be a strangely unreal one as it would become increasingly difficult for the credit importing countries to meet their debt obligations. In fact the lending countries must accept the repayment of tied loans in the form of exports.

Foreign Relations

Principles of Policy

Pakistan's foreign policy is based on simple fundamentals. We seek cordial relations with all countries and are willing to collaborate with them to the fullest extent in the promotion of international amity and harmony.

Pakistan has no territorial ambitions. We do not covet nor seek an inch of another country; we have never sought to exploit international tensions for self-aggrandizement. It has not been our policy to play off one power against another in the furtherance of our ends.

Pakistan will never be found lacking in extending its material and moral support to the oppressed and suppressed peoples of the world and in upholding the principles of the United Nations Charter.

It is a sad commentary on the culture of the modern age which claims to be so advanced in many ways that the right of self-determination is still not fully recognised by everybody everywhere. This denial is a slur on the conscience of the whole world and no advancement in science, technology and other material progress can wash or cover this ugly stigma. The continued existence of these pockets of tyranny and injustice constitutes a grave and standing menance to world peace. We hope and pray that sooner rather than later these dangerous sores will disappear and the world of today will be able to match its material progress with its moral and ethical conduct.

China

These relations (with China) are being strengthened in the interest of peace and peace alone. There should, therefore, be no apprehension in any country. Our relations with other countries continue to be friendly and it is our endeavour to strentghen them further.

The People's Republic of China and Pakistan have promoted the purposes and principles of the Charter of the UN and demonstrated the efficacy of peaceful procedure of settlement of international problems which the Charter enjoins on all nations, great and small. We believe that conclusion of this agreement (border demarcation) has opened up a new phase for development of friendly and good neighbourly relations between China and Pakistan. At the same time, it provides a fresh example of settling issues between Asian-African countries truly in a spirit of equality, co-operation, mutual understanding, accommodation and friendly consultation. It is a positive contribution to peace in Asia and the world.

We believe that the problems of the world in general and of Asia in particular can be resolved effectively only when China takes its rightful place in the comity of nations. The sooner this is done, the better for world peace.

Soviet Union

We have similarly endeavoured to promote good neighbourly understanding and fruitful co-operation with the Soviet Union, another great neighbour of ours. Any misunderstanding which may have arisen in our relationship is now a thing of the past.

Muslim Countries

Our faith and cultural heritage incline us towards the Muslim world which runs in a great belt from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific.

Situated as Pakistan is with its two Wings touching the western and eastern parts of the Islamic world, it can be a strong link in the chain of Islamic unity. Our relations with the Muslim countries have grown and deepened with the years and as we found in our moment of need, we can rely on their sympathy and support.

Pakistan has alway stood by the Arab cause, and *Insha-Allah*, we shall continue to do so in future as well. For this we seek no return and no reward except their goodwill.

The maintenance of cordial relations between Pakistan and Afghanistan contributes to assuring the security of the two countries and promoting stability and peace in our regions.

We value our special relationship with Iran and Turkey which is rooted in factors of geographic contiguity, of allegiance to a common faith and of cultural affinity.

Within the framework of the RCD we are pooling our experience and skills in tackling common problems; we are engaged in floating joint economic ventures and are mapping out areas where economies of scale dictate the necessity of the establishment of single units on an integrated basis for meeting the market requirements of the three countries.

With Indonesia, we have initiated a somewhat similar (RCD) .arrangement in IPECC (Indonesia-Pakistan Economic and Cultural Co-operation) ...... I have no doubt in my mind that these modest beginnings hold the promise of a great future for co-operation between both our countries to their mutual advantage and to the benefit of peace and progress in the region as a whole.

Commonwealth

We value our membership of the Commonwealth of Nations. This unique association, which is the product of historical growth, is unlike any other grouping of independent states. It brings together nations and peoples of all the continents on a basis of equality, for co-operation in the pursuit of peace and economic betterment. The Colombo Plan is a concrete manifestion of such co-operation for economic development.

Defence Pacts

If today we are signatories to the two security pacts which intimately concern the region in which we live, it is not because we wish to add to the tensions which afflict the world so sorely, but because we solemnly believe that it is only by entering into covenants with like-minded nations, who are devoted, as we are, to the preserva-

tion of peace and who value and prize their freedom above all other considerations, that the interests of peace can best be served.

India

There is much that the people of Pakistan and India share in common and I am convinced that a fund of good-will and friendship lies dormant beneath the bitterness caused by the conflict and recrimination of the last 19 years.

I think there is room and need for India and Pakistan to live as friends. If we cannot live as good friends, at least we should have a decent, human, neighbourly relationship with each other. This is what we, on our part, are trying to develop. But this has so far remained a largely unilateral endeavour... This does not dismay me. I still hope that one day realism will dawn in India too.

The answer to difficulties with India does not lie in MIG fighters but in good-heartedness and friendship, which we have offered but they keep singling us out as enemy number one. I should know if Pakistan was enemy number one of India. I know for a fact it is not so. Our desire is to live honourably at peace and in friendship with India.

An event of such tragic magnitude (death of Mr. Nehru) should be an occasion for searching of hearts by all those ordained by God to direct human affairs. Those placed in positions of authority and control over human destiny carry a grave responsibility. They have the opportunity and the power to do immense good or incalculable harm. The consequences of how they act can no longer be confined to their own spheres of action but must extend to others. For the nations of the world are now so closely inter-linked that the affairs of one have repercussions on the fate of many...Today may be the day for both sides, in particular for the new leadership in India, to take a fresh look at our relationship. On our part, we shall readily respond to a sincere move for the improvement of Indo-Pakistan relations.

India and Pakistan are neighbours, for better or for worse. Why let it be for the worse? Why not try the alternative of living together for the better?

Kashmir Dispute

Never had the destiny of so many millions depended so helplessly on the arbitrary strokes of one man's pencil. It was because Mr. Radcliffe happened to make a small dent on the wrong side of the line that over 4000,000 inhabitants of Jammu and Kashmir have been locked in a life-and-death struggle for self-determination for 13 long and dreadful years.

.... India gave a pledge to the people of Kashmir, to Pakistan, to the United Nations and, in fact, to the whole world that

the question of the accession of the State of Jammu and Kashmir to Pakistan or India, shall be decided by means of a fair and impartial plebiscite. All we want is that India should honour her pledge.

It is my faith that one day the world will realise that the people of Kashmir have a right to freedom and that they have a right to determine their own future.

India and Pakistan between themselves have no right to decide the fate of Kashmir. Only the Kashmiri people have this right. We are resolved and determind to see that they are given this right.

The major irritant in Indo-Pakistan relations is the Kashmir dispute. Everyone knows that the dispute exists. It cannot be just wished away. It would be more realis ic and statesmanlike to face it and resolve it. It has been festering our relations for too long.

Without a solution of the Kashmir problem, there will be no peace in this region. For the hearts of the people of Pakistan beat as one with those of their brethern in Jammu and Kashmir. Seldom have I seen our people so agitated as now over the sufferings of their brethern in the state who stood in hundreds of thousands in the streets for nearly a fortnight, day and night, in biting cold and snow, to take part in what was described by India as merely a religious agitation but is now known to be a mass demand for the promised plebiscite as well.

There can be no genuine friendship between Pakistan and India until the injustice which has been done to the people of Jammu and Kashmir is undone and solemnly pledged word honoured.

I had thought that the Indians were a business like people and knew how to draw up a balance-sheet. Is the forced occupation of a small state worth the international disgrace involved in repudiating solemn pledges? Is it worth the billions that India has already spent and will continue to spend on keeping the state down by force? Is it worth incurring Pakistan's hostility, when her friendship would have been a source of strength to India? Is it worth neglecting the socio-economic development of India's teeming millions? Is there no person in India who can draw up a balance-sheet and tell his government that this is a heavily losing, in fact a disastrous, business for India? What she is spending on Jammu and Kashmir is not only the fabulous sums provided for purchasing the goodwill of the people but also nearly $950 million annually on the unnecessary doubling of her armed forces because of this dispute.

It is amazing how India has changed her ground from time to time before this august body (the United Nations). And it is amazing how arguments, which merely echo the hollowness of the Indian case, are used with an air of false assurance and without a qualm of conscience.

Is the powerful Government of India, now armed to the teeth, unable to maintain law and order in its own country? This bogey of communal disturbances following any plebiscite held in Jammu and Kashmir is a terrible admission by the Government of India of its inability to discharge the elementary responsibility of maintaining order within its territory.

I can assure India and the Security Council, in the name of the people of Pakistan, that if a fair and free plebiscite is held in Jammu and Kashmir, and if the people of that state decide to join India, there will be no communal repercussions in Pakistan.

Tashkent Declaration

The aim of the Tashkent Declaration is that both India and Pakistan should resolve their mutual differences and their relations should be normalised as between two neighbouring countries. No right-thinking person can deny that the basic dispute between India and Pakistan concerns the right of self-determination of the people of Jammu and Kashmir. This dispute can neither be ignored nor indefinitely put off, nor can it be resolved merely by repeating that it is too old or too complicated.

Arms Buildup of India

It is our belief that the Sino-Indian dispute can and will be resolved peacefully. In our view, therefore, the continuance of military aid to India is unjustified. Furthermore, it poses a grave threat to Pakistan's security. We apprehend that after India has settled her dispute with China, she will revert to her traditional policy of intimidation of Pakistan. And she may even turn her newly acquired might against Pakistan when a suitable opportunity occurs, particularly at a time when the Western countries are so preoccupied with their own internal and external problems that they cannot undertake military commitments in this subcontinent or they find it inadvisable to do so for fear of provoking a world conflict.

If the security and welfare of the Indo-Pakistan subcontinent are the objectives then what is needed is not the injection of massive doses of military aid into India but a rapprochement between India and Pakistan, such as would ensure a disengagement and could even open the way to a reduction of the Indian and Pakistan forces. Such a rapprochement can be brought about only through a just and honourable settlement of the Kashmir dispute. It can be achieved in no other way.

And how long will India's economy be able to bear the crushing burden of two defence forces and of a war budget, which is bound to increase as time goes on? . . . . Those who wish to save India from disaster should counsel reduction of expenditure on wasteful war preparations and diversion of resources to social and economic development of India's poverty-stricken millions. Does it make sense to encourage India to live on a war basis when we all know that there is

no threat of war against her unless it is of her own making?

Indian Minorities

We both (Pakistan and India) have within our countries communities professing different faiths. They could hate and fight one another. They could also, with a little self-control, learn to be tolerant of one another. This is not a task beyond human capacity. For a civilized and organised society the way to greatness with honour lies in forbearance and discipline.

As the refugees from West Bengal pour into East Pakistan with their tales of woe, the Muslims of Pakistan are bound to feel disturbed. I am appealing to the President of India to take firm steps so as to bring the present disturbed situation in West Bengal under control. I am certain that any organised government should be able to put down these disturbances and restore complete order within a short time.

Indian Attack

The Indian rulers do not yet realise what people they have taken on. Dedicated to their faith and convinced of the justice of their cause, they will fight as one man in the name of God whose promise to mankind is that right shall triumph.

While we must prepare ourselves for the defence of our country, we must constantly remember that peace is our ultimate objective. All our struggle is devoted to the quest for peace. Remember that the edifice of peace can be raised only on the foundations of justice and righteousness. It is this peace which we cherish—peace with honour, peace with justice.

In this hour of reckoning, Pakistan has the sympathy and support of many a nation of the world who believe in justice and freedom. In fact, it is in times like this that friendship among nations is put to a real test. It is by going through a crisis together that lasting relations are established between individuals and between nations.

Pakistan has been saved. Let this blessing of God and this achievement of the people and their brave and dedicated Armed Forces never be forgotten. By his faith in God and in his cause and by his indomitable courage and superb craftmanship, the fighting man of Pakistan has written in his blood a golden chapter in the history of Islam.

Common Problems of Afro-Asian Countries

The dawn of political independence came to Pakistan after a long period of waiting and sacrifice. Pakistanis naturally look forward now to a life of dignity and well-being which was hitherto denied to them. In this atmosphere of high expectations Pakistan, as well as the other Afro-Asian countries, face problems which are similar in character.

Our main problem is to achieve socio-economic growth in as short a time as possible. This task is difficult enough in all conscience

but it is made more difficult by our all too meagre resources in money and trained man-power.

We are engaged in a gigantic struggle for economic emancipation which has no parallel in human history .Let us have no illusions about the sacrifice that the struggle will involve. Let us make the effort equal to the task ahead of us. History will judge us harshly if we fail to make the effort. Let history not judge us so.

United Nations

In spite of its many limitations, and we in Pakistan have suffered on account of them, the United Nations continues to serve as a forum for the expression of the views of the smaller nations in an endeavour to influence world opinion. It is to be hoped that this organisation will yet be enabled to pursue, more effectively, its objective of maintaining world peace and goodwill. If the United Nations were to disintegrate, the major Powers may be able to adjust themselves to the new situation, but the voice of the smaller nations will be lost in the wilderness.

The United Nations is the last hope for international peace. If it fails, the prospect would be horrifying, for we will go back to the law of the jungle. It will not fail if it judges the issues before it on moral grounds of what is right or wrong, irrespective of who are involved. I hope that this will happen in all cases, including that of Jammu and Kashmir.

World Peace

We are fully conscious of the annihilatory power of modern weapons and regard general and complete disarmament as imperative for peace.

We regard war as a most unproductive effort, and as a soldier I condemn unreservedly resort to force for the settlement of disputes between nations.

We stand for the right of nations to live peacefully within their own frontiers according to the dictates of their own faith and aspirations and free from threats of outside aggression and internal subversion.

Human Condition

Fear and want still haunt huge areas, reducing human life to the level of dumb-driven cattle, and in an age of space travel, synthetic food products and remarkable mechanical amenities, millions continue to live in isolation, hunger, and primitive circumstances, making a mockery of all spiritual, material and intellectual enlightenment in which modern man can, and does, take reasonable pride.

CENTRAL MINISTERS

SHAHABUDDIN, Khawaja, H.Q.A., Minister for Inform. and Broad. and seniormost member in the President's Cabinet. Municipal Commissioner, Dacca, 18; vice-Chairman and subsequently, Chairman of the Dacca Municipal Committee in the late twenties; Honorary Treasurer of Dacca Univ. for seven years and vice-Chancellor for a short period; member, Governor's Executive Council, 36; Chief Whip of the first Muslim ministry in Bengal, 37-40; Minister of Commerce, Labour and Ind., 43-45; Chief Government Whip in the Pakistan Constituent Assembly, 47; Minister of Interior, Inform. and Broad. 48; Governor of the former N.W.F.P., 51; Ambassador of Pakistan to Saudi Arabia, and later concurrently accredited as Minister to Yemen, 55; Ambassador to the United Arab Republic, 58-61; Pakistan's High Commissioner in Nigeria, 61, later concurrently accredited Ambassador to the Federal Republic of Cameroun, Republic of Dahomey and Niger, Senegal and Togo, and as High Commissioner in Sierra Leone; led Pakistan unofficial goodwill mission to Afro-Asian countries to explain Pakistan's stand on Kashmir, 64; represented Pakistan at a seminar on Human Rights held at Kabul, 64.

KHAN, Khan A. Sabur, H.Q.A. Minister for Communications, and Leader of the House in the N.A. of Pakistan; b: 1910; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta. President of the Muslim League, Khulna, 38-58, and President Chambers of Commerce and Ind. Khulna, 52-62; Municipal Commissioner, 51-54; Chairman Khulna Distt. Board, 51-54; Jt. Secy., Bengal Provincial Muslim League, 39-47; Publicity Secy., Provincial Muslim League, 51-58; member of the Pakistan Muslim League Working Committee, 51-58; President of E.P. Assoc., Rawalpindi; represented Pakistan in F.R.O. (Washington), 48; led friendship delegation to Peking on the Independence Day celebrations of the People's Republic of China, 64.

HUSAIN, Altaf, H.Q.A. Minister for Industries and Natural Resources. b: 1900; ed: Univs. of Calcutta and Dacca.
Joined the teaching profession in Bengal, 23; Principal of the Dacca College, 38; Dir. of Public Instruction, E.P., 38; resigned Government service in 1945

to become editor of *Dawn*, Delhi, 45, and afterwards *Dawn*, Karachi, when founded in 1947; member of the Executive Board of the International Press Institute; Chairman of the Pakistan Section of the Commonwealth Press Union; member, Pakistan Delegation to the UN General Assembly, 51; also on Pakistan Delegation to the ECOSOC in Geneva for two years and to the World Economic Conference in Moscow, 52; led the Pakistan Delegation to the Quinquennial Commonwealth Relations Conference in New Zealand, 60; *Publs*: Translated Iqbal's *Shikwa and Jawab-e-Shikwa*, *India—The last Ten Years* and a book on his visit to the Soviet Union.

ZAFAR, Syed Mohammad, Minister for Law and Parliamentary Affairs, also Dy. Leader Pakistan Muslim League Parliamentary Party; b: Dec 6, 30; ed: Govt. and Law Colleges, Lahore.
Entered legal practice in Lahore, 51; member, Bar Council, 63; Part-time lecturer in Law College, Lahore, 55-61, and in Civil Services Academy till March 65; Governor of the Pakistan Legal Centre, Lahore; Regional Secy., All Pakistan Bar Assocn., visited USA, Europe, U.K., Middle East and the Far East.

HAQUE, Kazi Anwar-ul, S.Pk., S.Q.A., Minister for Education and Health, Labour and Social Welfare; b: 1909; ed: Dacca Univ.
First place in the Indian Police Service Competitive Examination, 32; joined the Police Service of Bengal, 33, and served there in different capacities till 1947; posted at Chittagong as Supdtt. of Police, 47; held various appointments in the Police and Intelligence Deptts., E.P., I.G. Police, 58; Dir., Bureau of National Reconstruction, E.P., 59; Secy., Health and Social Welfare, Local Self Govt., B.D., and Village-AID., E.P., 59; Addl. Chief Secy., E.P., 61; Chief Secy., E.P., till 63; Chairman of Federal (now Central) Public Service Commission, 63; served as member Police Commission, the Administration Re-organisation Committee and the Commission on Students Problems and Welfare.

DOHA, A.H.M. Shams-ud, Minister for Agri. and Works; b: Feb, 1903; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta.
Joined the Indian Police Service, 24; D.I.G., Police, 47; Direc-Gen., Ansars and Civil Defence, 48; organised the E.P. Ansar Service; I.G. Police, E.P., 52; retired, 57; Dir., National Bank of Pakistan and Member of the Central Public Service Commission; undertook work on educational and social advancement; elected B.D. and Chairman of the Tejgaon Union Council, Dacca; member, Dacca Div. Council; set up two High schools, several primary schools, one *madrassah*, four adult education centres and library in his Union; elected to the N.A., 65.

PIRZADA, Syed Sharifuddin, S.Pk., Minister of Foreign Affairs; b: June 12, 23; ed. Univ. of Bombay.
Honorary Secy., to the Quaid-i-Azam, 45; Managing Editor 'Pakistan Herald', Bombay, 48-55; President, Karachi Bar Assocn., 64; practising lawyer in the Bombay High Court, West Pakistan High Court and the Supreme Court of Pakistan; Represented Pakistan before the international Tribunal on the Rann

of Kutch.
Publs: 'Evolution of Pakistan', 'Fundamental Rights and Constitutional Remedies in Pakistan'.

UQUAILI, Nabi Baksh Mohammad Siddique, S.Pk., S.Q.A., C.A., Finance Minister; b: Aug 11,13.
Entere career repeat in banking; Controller, Foreign Exchange, State Bank of Pakistan, 51; Managing Dir. Pakistan Industrial Credit and Investment Corpn., 58-66., Senior vice-President of the Pakistan Institute of Chartered Accountants and member of the Council of Pakistan Institute of Bankers; member of the Sind Madrassah Board and President of the Sind Madrassah Old Boy's Assocn; Represented Pakistan at numerous international and Commonwealth Conferences on banking, finance, economics and foreign trade in U.S.A., U.K., Europe and Asia.

KHAN, Vice Admiral A.R., H.Pk., H.J., H.Q.A., Minister for Defence; ed: Govt. College, Lahore and the Mercantile Marine Training Ship, Dufferin.
Received commission in the Navy during the Second World War; saw active service in many theatres especially the Far East, Atlantic and the Mediterranean; specialised in Gunnery and held appointments on the instructional staff of Himalaya; held command of one of the first Destroyers acquired by the P.N. from the United Kingdom, 47; participated in several international and commonwealth maritime exercises. Attended a course of study at the Joint Services Staff College, U.K., 52; Naval Adviser to the High Commissioner for Pakistan in London, 53; Deputy Chief of Naval Staff (Operations) at the N.Hqs; elevated to the rank of Commodore, 58, and posted Chief of Staff; Commander-in-Chief P.N. 59.

KHAN OF HOTI, Nawabzada Abdul Ghafoor, Minister for Comm.; ed: Government College, Lahore; Joined Indian Army, 42; rose to the rank of Lt. Col., 53; to him goes the credit of building up the Armoured Corps School of which he was the Chief Instructor at the time of his retirement; started business after retirement; elected to the National Assembly, 62, and was Deputy Speaker since 1962; re-elected, 65; member, Pakistan delegation to the United Nations, 63, and Parliamentary delegation to Ottawa, 65.

PROVINCIAL MINISTERS

Government of East Pakistan

KHAN, Abdul Monem, H.Pk., Governor, E.P.; ed: Dacca College and Calcutta Univ.
Joined the Bar at Mymensingh, 27; Asstt. Secy., Distt. Mymensingh Anjuman-e-Islamia, 28; Founder-Secy. Mymensingh Distt. Muslim League, 35-37; Salar-e-Zilla, Mymensingh Distt.; member, Provincial Muslim League Working Committee and All-Pakistan Muslim League Council; President of Distt. School Board, Mymensingh 46-54; member, Provincial Defence Committee and Dacca Univ. Court; Chairman, Mymensingh Central Co-operative Bank Ltd; member, Constituent Assembly of Pakistan till 1954; Central

Minister for Health, Labour and Social Welfare, 62; elected to the N.A., 62; attended Commonwealth Parliamentary Assocn. meeting in Ottawa, 52; visited U.S.A., U.K., France and China.

BASITH, Dewan Abdul, Minister for Commerce and Ind.; b: Oct. 11, 11; ed: Univs. of Calcutta and Dacca.
Asstt. Secy., Assam Provincial Muslim League, 43; Gen. Secy. and Councillor All-India Muslim League, 44; member to Indian Legislative Assembly, 44; member, Aligarh Muslim University Court from the All-India Muslim Education Conference Constituency, 45-47; member, Assam Provincial Assembly, 46; member, Working Committee of E.P. Provincial Muslim League and Councillor All-Pakistan Muslim League; representative of the E.P. Assembly on Dacca Univ. Court, 48-54.

HUDA, M.N., Ph.D., Finance Minister; b: 1919; ed: Dacca and Cornell Univs.
Joined Bengal Civil Service, 44; joined Dacca Univ. as Reader in Economics, 47; Professor of Economics, 60; member, Plan. Commission, 62; also served as member E.P. Plan. Board; member, Taxation Enquiry Committee and Credit Enquiry Committee, represented Pakistan at several international conferences.

BARI, Mohammad Fazlul, Minister for Health, Labour and Social Welfare; b: 1922; ed: Dacca Univ.
Chief editor fortnightly 'The Mahasthan', Bogra; vice-Chairman of the Bogra Distt. Council; Secy., Bogra Distt. Branch of Pakistan Red Cross Society; also associated with various social institutions of Bogra Distt; Muslim Leaguer since 1942 and member of the Working Committee of the East Pakistan Muslim League; Parliamentary Secy., E.P., 62.

AHMED, Sultan, Minister for Railways, Water and Road Transport; b: 1912.
Vice-President and President of the City Muslim League, Chittagong before independence and its Secy. till 1958; member, Provincial Muslim League Working Committee; represents Chittagong Distt. Sports Assocn. in the E.P. Sports Federation; vice-President of Chittagong Chambers of Commerce and Ind.; Secy., Chittagong Branch of Red Cross Society.

CHOWDHURY, Abdul Hye, Minister for Law and Parliamentary Affairs; b: 1923; ed: Dacca Univ.
Commissioned during World War II; with the cessation of hostilities obtained M.A. and Law degree and joined Dacca High Court as an Advocate, 51; enrolled Attorney of Supreme Court, 51; vice-President of Dacca High Court Bar Assocn. and sitting member of E.P. Bar Council; member, N.A., 62; Parliamentary Secy. for Law and Parliamentary Affairs, 62; attended conference of the Parliamentary Union held in Copenhagen as a delegate from Pakistan, 64.

CHOWDHURY, Maung Shwe Prue, Minister for Works, Power and Irrigation; b: 1917.
Served for fifteen years as Welfare Officer; chief of the Bomang Circle since

1949; member of the Provincial Advisory Council during the Martial Law Regime; elected to the East Pakistan Assembly, 65; Member of goodwill Mission to Japan to present holy hair of Lord Buddha, 64; also visited a number of South East Asian countries.

MANNAN, Fakir Abdul, Minister for Relief & Rehabilitation; b: 1909;
Joined Dacca Bar, 35; senior advocate Dacca High Court, also advocate of Supreme Court of Pakistan; *member*; Bengal Legislative Assembly, 46-47 and East Bengal Legislative Assembly, 47-50; Secy., Muslim League Parliamentary Party in East Bengal Legislative Assembly and Secy., E.P. Muslim League, 52-54; Chairman Dacca Distt. Board, 52; member, Dacca Divisional Council since, 60.

HUSSAIN, S.M. Amzad, Minister for Education; b: 1927 ed: Dacca Univ.
Joined Khulna Bar, 52; Gen. Secy. and Publicity Secy., Khulna Distt. Muslim League; member, E.P. Provincial Muslim League Organising Committee; Jt. Secy., E.P. Muslim League; vice-chairman Central Co-operative Fishermen's Society; member, Khulna Development Authority; Commissioner, Khulna Municipality; member, Div. Council.

RAHMAN, Q.M., S.Q.A. B.A. (Hons), LL.B, Minister for Food and Agri.; b: March, 1906; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Joined the Bengal Civil Service, 30, and worked as Sub-Div. Officer; Dir. of Fisheries; Dir. of Land and Water Use; Dir. of Extension and Rural Development; Distt. Mag., Secy. Agri. Deptt., Commissioner and Member, Board of Revenue, E.P.; visited U.S.A., 56 in connection with the Leader Exchange Programme; also attended the Plenary Session of the Food and Agriculture Organization held at Rome, 59 as a delegate from Pakistan.

AHMAD, Mr. Fakhruddin, B.A., LL.B., Minister for Revenue; b: Sep. 1905; ed: A.M. College, Mymensingh, Dacca Univ.
Started practice in the Distt. Courts of Mymensingh, 31; Secy. of the Mymensingh Sadar Sub-Div. Muslim League. Since 1938, a member of the Bengal Provincial Muslim League Council as also of the All-India Muslim League Council; associated with service organizations of Mymensingh and connected with many educational institutions either as patron, member or president of managing committees; elected President of the Mymensingh Distt. Muslim League, 63; elected member of the N.A., 62, and, re-elected in 1965 for the second time and continued till October, 1966. Visited U.K. and Middle East countries on Parliamentary delegations on two occasions. Minister in East Pakistan Governor's Council since November 1966.

Government of West Pakistan

MUSA, General Mohammad, H.Pk., H.J., H.Q.A., M.B.E., Governor of West Pakistan.
Before independence served on the Armed Forces Nationalization Committee and after independence helped to conduct the evacuation of Muslims from the

disturbed areas of East Punjab and Delhi; was given the command of a Brigade, 48; for some time served as Dir. and Inspector, National Guards; Dir. of Infantry, G.H.Qrs. before being posted to command another Brigade; prior to that he was for three years Dy. Chief of Staff and Chief of the Jr. Services Sectt., Min. of Defence; became Maj.-Gen., 51; Commanded troops in E.P., 51; Pakistan's representative on the military committee of the Central Treaty Organisation; Lt.-Gen., 57; under him the army has been through major organisational and procedural changes, and is now one of the world's most streamlined modern armies.

President, Pakistan Hockey Federation and Pakistan Golf Union; Toured most of the army training institutions in UK, 50; attended a year's course at the Imperial Defence College, UK, 56; also visited the USA, Turkey, Iran and Indonesia.

BUCHA, Malik Khuda Baksh, Minister, Food and Agri. and Cooperation; b: 1906; ed: Government College, Lahore and Punjab Univ.

Joined the Provincial Civil Service, 33; held various posts in different Distts, President of the Provincial Civil Service Assocn.; member, Land Reform Commission till 59; Secy., Revenue Deptt., W.P., 59-60; Secy., Agri. Deptt., 61, till his appointment as Minister; member, Credit Inquiry Commission. *Publs*: *Relief Legislation in Punjab*, *Land Reforms in West Pakistan*, *Hamari Zira-at.*

KHAN, Ghulam Sarwar, S.Q.A., Minister for Revenue, Rehabilitation and Colonies; ed: Islamia College, Peshawar and Muslim Univ., Aligarh.

Joined Provincial Civil Service, 35; served in various capacities in the former N.W.F.P., and Baluchistan, 35; Commissioner, Peshawar till 1966.

WATTOO, Mian Mohammad Yasin Khan, Minister, Basic Democracies and Local Government; b: March 10, 29; ed: Emerson College, Multan, Government College, Sahiwal, and Law College, Lahore.

Legal practice; member, Distt. Board Sahiwal, 55; elected to the W.P., Assembly, 62. Leader, Parliamentary Delegation which toured Malayasia, 63.

KHAN, Mohammad Ali, of Hoti, Minister for Education and Auqaf, W.P.; b: Oct. 15, 23; ed: Govt. College, Lahore.

Landlord and industrialist; Gen. Secy., Provincial Muslim League (former, N.W.F.P.), 46; took part in independence movement.

Represented Pakistan at the U.N. Conference, Havana, 47-48.

HAMID-UD-DIN, Makhdoom, Minister for Irrigation and Power, W.P., also Dy. Leader Muslim League Assembly Party; b: 1926; ed: Rahim Yar Khan, S.E. College, Bahawalpur and Karachi Univ.

Enrolled as advocate of the W.P. High Court; member, W.P. Assembly, 56; member, N.A; Parliamentary Secy. for Parliamentary Affairs, 62; elected to the W.P. Assembly, 65; President, Bahawalpur Div. Muslim League.

ZAHIDA Khaliquzzaman, Begum, Minister for Health, Labour & Social Welfare, W.P.

Elected to the W.P. Provincial Assembly, 65; an active social worker.

KIRMANI, M. Ahmad Saeed, Minister for Finance, Excise, Taxation and Inform.; ed: Islamia, Foreman Christian and Univ. Law Colleges, Lahore.
Member, Punjab Muslim League Council and All-India Muslim League Council; practised law for sixteen years in the W.P. High Court and Supreme Court; representative, Lahore constituency in the Provincial Legislature; Secy.-Gen. W.P., Muslim League.
Visited Middle East, Europe and the U.S.A.

JUNEJO, Mohammad Khan, Minister for Works and Communications, W.P.; an agriculturist by profession; popularised modern farming methods in his district; joined politics, 53; Chairman, Distt. Board, Sanghar, 65; Minister for Communications, Works and Railways in the previous West Pakistan Cabinet.

AKHUND, Allah Bachayo, Minister for Law and Parliamentary Affairs; ed: Bombay Univ.
Entered legal profession, 40, and practised at Hyderabad (Sind); Hony. Prof., Hyderabad Law College since 1948; later Principal until appointment as minister.

KHAN, Malik Allah Yar, Minister for Labour and Jails; b: 1927; ed: Punjab Univ.
Legal practice, Campbellpur, 51; President, Distt. Muslim League, 51; member, Distt. Board, 54; member, W.P. Assembly, 56; member, N.A., 62; re-elected to the N.A. and appointed Parliamentary Secy. for Inform. and Broad., 65.
Participated in Inter-Regional Rural Youth Conference held in Rome, 57; attended SEATO seminar as member of Pakistan Delegation in Philippines and headed Pakistan Delegation to GANEFO Conference in Jakarta, 63.

OBEDULLAH, Kazi Fazlullah, B.A., LL.B. Minister for Home, b: 1902; ed: Aligarh Muslim Univ., Jamia Millia and Bombay Univ.
Participated in non-cooperation Movement; Chairman, Distt. School Board, Larkana, 45; President, Distt. Local Board 45; elected to Sind Legislative Assembly, 46; Minister of Revenue, Sind, 47; held the portfolios of Education, Local Self Government, Health and Irrigation and became the Chief Minister of Sind, 50; elected to W.P. Assembly, 56; served as Minister for Irrigation Development, Electricity, Barrages and Industries till 1958; practised Law, 58-67, till his appointment as Home Minister.

CHIEF JUSTICE AND JUDGES OF SUPREME COURT

CORNELIUS, Justice Chief Alvin Robert, b: May 1, 03; ed: Muir Central College, Allahabad, Allahabad Univ. and Selwyn College, Cambridge.
Entered Indian Civil Services, 26; served as Assistant Commissioner and District and Sessions Judge, (Punjab); Legal Remembrances, Law Deptt. of the Punjab Govt., 44-46; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 38; Secy, Govt. of Pakistan, Ministry of Law and Labour, 50-51; Judge, Federal Court, 51; Chief

Justice of Pakistan, 60; member, Committee on the Freedom of Employers and Workers Organizations of the International Labour Office at Geneva, 52-56; Chairman, Pay and Services Commission, Govt. of Pakistan, 59-62.

REHMAN, Mr. Justice Shaikh Abdur, H.Pk., LL.B. (Honoris Causa, Punjab and Cairo Univs.); b: June 4, 03; ed: Punjab and Oxford Univs.
Entered I.C.S., 26; served as Assistant Commissioner, District and Sessions Judge in various districts of the Punjab; some time Legal Remembrancer, Punjab; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 46; Member, Bengal Boundary Commission, 47; Custodian of Evacuee Property Punjab, 47-52. Chief Justice, High Court, Lahore, 54; Chief Justice, W.P. High Court, 55; Judge, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 58; Chairman, Central Urdu Board, Lahore; Director, Institute of Islamic Culture, Lahore; Member, Board of Governors, Central Islamic Research Institute, Bazm-i-Iqbal, and Board for Advancement of Literature; President, Pakistan Arts Council Lahore, Acting Chief Election Commissioner since April, 67.
Publs: Tarjuman-i-Asrar, (translation of Iqbal's Asrar-i-Khudi), Safar (a Collection of poems).

AKBAR, Mr. Justice Fazle, b: Nov. 18, 03; ed: St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and Calcutta Univ., and called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn.
Practised law at High Court, Calcutta, 31-43; part time Professor of Jurisprudence, Univ. of Calcutta; District and Sessions Judge, Bengal, 43-46; Registrar, High Court of East Bengal and Special Officer, Judicial Department, 47; Judge, High Court of E.P., 50. Chairman: Railway Tribunal, 50; and Univ. Commission, Dacca, 54; Judge, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 60.

RAHMAN, Mr. Justice Hamoodur, b: Nov. 1, 10; ed: St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and Univ. College, London, and called to the Bar Gray's Inn.
Joined Calcutta High Court Bar, 38; Councillor, Calcutta Corporation, 40; Deputy Mayor, Calcutta, 43; Junior Standing Counsel to the Government of Bengal, 43-47; Legal Advisor, State Bank of Pakistan, Dacca, 50; Advocate-Gen. E.P., 53; Judge, Dacca High Court, 54; and also Vice-Chancellor, Dacca Univ. in addition to his duties as Judge, High Court; Member International Court of Arbitration, Hague, 59; Judge, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 60; Chairman, Commission on Students Problems and Welfare, 64.

KHAN, Mr. Justice Mohammad Yaqub Ali, b: March 10, 12; ed: Punjab Univ.
Apprenticeship under Sh. Mohammad Sharif, a former Judge of Supreme Court of Pakistan; set up practice at Jullundur and later on at Rawalpindi and Lahore; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 55; Judge, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 65.

CHIEF JUSTICE & JUDGES OF EAST PAKISTAN HIGH COURT

MURSHED, Chief Justice Syed Mahbub, b: 1911; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta; King's College, London; called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn.
Joined Calcutta High Court Bar, 34; rejoined this Court, 39; Senior Advocate,

Federal Court of India; Senior Govt. Counsel for Improvement Tribunals; Counsel, Calcutta Improvement Trust; joined Dacca High Court Bar, 51; Senior Advocate, Federal (now Supreme) Court of Pakistan; Judge, High Court, 55; an *ad-hoc* Judge of Supreme Court of Pakistan, 62.

BAQUER, Justice A.K.M., b: Oct 1,08; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta, Aligarh and Dacca Univs., University College, London. Called to the Bar from Middle Temple, 38.
Counsellor Calcutta High Court, 38-47; Councillor, Calcutta Corporation; Chairman, Public Utilities and Markets Committee; member, Calcutta Port Trust and Dacca High Court, 47; part-time Law Lecturer Islamia College, Calcutta and Dacca Univs; Vice-President, Dacca High Court Bar Assocn; Advocate-General, E.P.

SIDDIKY, Justice B.A., S.PK., b: Nov 1, 15; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
Took active part in Pakistan Movement 37-47; Speaker, Dacca Univ. Student's Council, 39-40; Secretary, Dacca District Muslim League Defence Committee, 42-44; enrolled Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 46, and Dacca High Court, 47; Counsel, Muslim League, before the Calcutta Riot Enquiry Commission, 46-47; Member, Dacca Univ. Court, 49-60; Chairman, E.P. Red Cross Society, 62; represented Pakistan in centenary celebrations of the Red Cross Societies in Geneva, 63. Legal Adviser, State Bank of Pakistan, Dacca Branch, 52-57, Advocate-Gen. E.P., 57-60.

KHAN, Justice M.R., b: March 1, 10; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
Joined Bengal Civil Service, 36; Assistant Secretary, Judicial Department, E.P. 49; Provincial Registrar of Money-lenders, 48; Deputy Secretary, Legislative Department, E.P., 49; Subordinate Judge, 50; received training in Public Administration in Australia under Colombo Plan, 55; Joint Secretary, Ministry of Law, 57; Legal Adviser, Govt. of Pakistan on the Indus Basin Water Dispute; member, Election Commission, Pakistan, 62-64 and Franchise Commission of Pakistan, 62; attended International Law Assocn. General Session in New York and was alternate delegate of Pakistan in the Legal Committee of the U.N., 58.

AHMED, Justice Salahuddin, ed: St. Xavier's Presidency, and Univ. Law College, Calcutta.
Enrolled advocate of the Calcutta High Court, 36; practice on the original side, 41; served in the law panel of Legal Remembrancer, Bengal; enrolled advocate Dacca High Court and Federal (now Supreme) Court of Pakistan; Deputy Legal Remembrancer, Government of East Pakistan, 60; Official Receiver, High Court and Administrator-Gen., E.P. High Court; Chairman, Dacca Election Tribunal, 65; President, Governing Body of Madrasa-i-Aliya, Dacca.

CHOWDHURY, Justice Abu Sayeed, b: Jan 31, 21; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta and Univ. of Calcutta, called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn, 47.
Set up practice at Dacca; member Pakistan Delegation to U.N., 59; President,

Rotary Club, Dacca; member, Company Law Commission, 59; Chairman, Central Board for Development of Bengali; Advocate-Gen., E.P. 60; Additional Judge, Dacca High Court, 61; permanent Judge, 62; member, Constitution Commission; member and Chairman provincial Bar Council.

SAYEM, Justice Abu Sadat Mohammad, b: 1916; ed: Rangpur and Presidency College, and Univ. Law College, Calcutta.
Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 44; Dacca High Court, 47; examiner, Dacca Univ.; member, Local Board, Bank of Pakistan, 56; member, provincial Bar Council, Advocate, Federal Court of Pakistan, 51; and Senior Advocate, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 59; Additional Judge, Dacca High Court, 62; Member, Commission of Enquiry to examine the causes of the exodus and eviction of Muslim from India, 63.

CHOUDHURI, Justice A. Subhan, b: July 1, 08; ed: Govt. College, Sylhet, Calcutta, and Muslim Univ., Aligarh.
Joined Judicial Service as Munsif, 37; Subordinate Judge, 49; Additional District and Sessions Judge, 56; District and Sessions Judge, 57.

ABDULLA, Justice Abu Mohammed, b: May 6, 13; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Enrolled an advocate of High Court Calcutta, 38; practised on the original side, Calcutta; enrolled Advocate High Court, Dacca, 50; Federal (now Supreme) Court of Pakistan, 62; Senior Advocate, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 63.

HUSAIN, Mr. Justice Syed A.B. Mahmud, b: Feb 1, 16; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
Pleader, 40; Advocate, Dacca High Court, 48; Attorney, Federal Court, 51; Advocate, Federal Court, 53; Senior Advocate, Supreme Court, 58; Councillor, Assam Provincial Muslim League, 44-47; Councillor, All-India Muslim League, 44-47; Councillor, All-Pakistan Muslim League, 47-55; member, Constituent Assembly of Pakistan, 49-54; member, Commonwealth Parliamentary Assocn., 50-54; member Inter-Parliamentary Union, 50-54; member, Pakistan Tea Board, 51-54; member, Executive Council, Univ. of Dacca, 52-54; member, Local Advisory Committee, Eastern Bengal Railway, 52-54; Additional Govt. Pleader, Habiganj, 43; Assistant Govt. Pleader, High Court, Dacca, 52; Senior Govt. Pleader, High Court, Dacca, 56; Acting Advocate-Gen., E.P. 64; Director, Pakistan Refugees Rehabilitation Finance Corporation, 53-54.

HAKIM, Justice Maksumul, M.A., ed: Calcutta Univ., called to the Bar: Diploma in International Relations.
Started practice, 49; Advocate, Supreme Court of Pakistan, 55; Legal Advisor, State Bank of Pakistan, 59-61; Leader, Pakistan Delegation to Human Rights Commission to the UN and Pakistani Delegation to the Third Commonwealth and Empire Lawyers' Conference, Sydney. Advocate-Gen., E.P., 61; Judge, High Court of E.P., 66.

HAKIM, Justice Abdul, M.A. LL.B., B.L., b: Dec 1, 20; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
Joined High Court Bar, 50, as advocate and enrolled as advocate, Supreme

Court of Pakistan, 56; Deputy Legal Remembrancer, E.P., 61; Administrator Gen. and Official Trustee, Judge, High Court, E.P., 66.

MAUDUD, Justice Abdul, M.A., B.L., b: 1908; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Entered Judicial Service, 36; served as Deputy Registrar, Small Causes Court, Calcutta; Special Judge and District and Sessions Judge; Joint Secretary, Ministry of Law and Parliamentary Affairs, 61-76; Legal Advisor to Pakistan Delegation to the UN Conference, 65,
Most recent publication: *Life of Hazrat Umar.*

KHAN, Justice Abdul Hakim, M.A., B.L., b: 1909; ed: Dacca Univ.
Joined Judicial Service of E.P. and served as Subordinate and Assistant Sessions Judge; District and Sessions Judge; Chairman, Industrial Court, E.P., 64-67; elevated to the Bench of E.P. High Court, 67.

CHIEF JUSTICE & JUDGES OF WEST PAKISTAN HIGH COURT

KHAN, Chief Justice Inamullah, LL.B., b: July 7, 07; ed: Muslim Univ., Aligarh; Hony. LL.D. of Karachi Univ.; practised in Mofussil Courts and at Allahabad High Court. Resumed practice in W.P.; Legal Adviser, Income Tax Deptt., Sind and Baluchistan, 48; Prof., Sind Muslim College; Public Prosecutor, 50; Acting Advocate-Gen., Sind Govt., 51; Judge, Sind Chief Court, 52; High Court, W.P., 55 and Chief Justice, W.P., 65. Also Chairman, Income Tax Investigation Tribunal, 53; Chairman Karachi Univ. Inquiry Commission, 56; Member, Senate and Syndicate, Karachi Univ.

AHMAD, Justice Waheeduddin, B.A., LL.B., b: Sept. 21, 09; ed; St: Stephens College and Delhi Univ.; practised at Delhi, 33; enrolled as advocate, High Court, Lahore, 39; nominated member, Majlis Auqaf; member, Delhi Municipal Committee, 45; practised at Karachi; Puisne Judge of High Court W.P., 56; Chairman, Evacuee Property Tribunal, 59; Senior Judge of Karachi Bench of the High Court of W.P.

AHMED, Justice Qadeeruddin, b: 1909; ed: St. Stephen's college and the Law College of Univ. of Delhi.
Started practice with Sir Abdur Rahman, 33; member, Delhi Univ. Senate; member, Commission appointed to convert Delhi Municipality into a Corporation; President, Provincial Muslim League, Delhi, 45 and 46; migrated to Pakistan, 47; worked for establishing some of the most important banking and financial institutions; drafted basic documents of the State Bank, National Bank and PICIC; legal advisor PIDC; Judge of the W.P. High Court, 57.

MAHMOOD, Justice Sheikh Aziz, B.A., b: Aug. 17, 07; ed: Punjab Univ.; called to the Bar from Middle Temple, 30; practiced at Gurdaspur and at Lahore; Public Prosecutor, Lahore and Sheikhupura, 42-45; Asstt. Advocate-Gen., Punjab Govt., 50; Addl. Advocate-Gen. W.P., 57; and Advocate-Gen., 58; Elected to the Bench, 58; Member, Presidential Commission on Students Problems and Welfare, 64; Member, Syndicate of the Univ. of Engg. & Tech. Lahore.

KHAMISANI, Justice Illahi Bux. B.A., LL.B.; b: Feb. 10, 14;
Started practice, 38; served as Asstt. Public Prosecutor, Khairpur and Sukkur, 49; Asstt. Advocate-Gen., Sind, 54; Acting Advocate-Gen., Sind, 55; Addl. Advocate-Gen., W.P., Karachi, 57; Judge, High Court of W.P., Karachi, 58.

AHMAD, Justice Sajjad, B.A. (Hons), LL.B., b: 1908; ed: Punjab Univ., Muslim Univ., Aligarh.
Practised as advocate, High Court and Supreme Court; Member, Intern. Bar Assoc. Chairman, National Committee of Pakistan for Peace Through Rule of Law; President Pak-Soviet Cultural Assocn., Lahore; Govt. and Public Prosecutor, Hazara, 42-46; Legal Adviser Municipality and Cantonment Board, Abbottabad; elevated to High Court Bench, 59; Permanent Judge, 61; Custodian Evacuee Property, W.P.; Chairman, Wage Board for Working Journalists; Chairman, Election Tribunal, W.P.

FAROOQI, Justice A.S., B.A., LL.B., b: Feb. 8, 09; ed: Allahabad and Lucknow. Univs.
Joined Nagpur Bar, Central Provinces, India, 32, and practised at the Nagpur High Court till 1942; practised at the Sind Chief Court and West Pakistan High Court, Karachi; lecturer Sind Muslim Law College, 49-57; appointed High Court Judge, 59.

HAQ, Justice S. Anwarul, M.A., b: May 11, 17; ed: Punjab Univ.
Joined Indian Civil Services, 39, and after one year's training at Oxford served as Sub-Divisional Magistrate, Assistant Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner in Punjab, District and Sessions Judge; Deputy Secretary, Ministry of Defence; Additional Judge High Court of W.P., 59 and Judge, W.P. High Court, 62; Leader of the Pakistan delegation to the Third Commonwealth and Empire Law Conference, Sydney, 65; Member, Syndicate Punjab Univ.; President, Islamia College Committee; also acting Vice-Chancellor Punjab Univ.

MAHMOOD, Justice Nazeer Ahmad, B.A., LL.B., b: March 28, 08; ed: Punjab Univ.
Enrolled as advocate High Court, Lahore, 37; served as Additional Sessions Judge, Gujranwala; Sessions Judge, Sahiwal, Jhelum and Sheikhupura; President, Improvement Trust Tribunal, Lahore and other districts; Law Secretary, Government of W.P. 59; elevated to the Bench, 60.

RAYMOND, Justice H.T., M.A., ed: St. Patrick's School, and St. Xavier's College, Bombay, Oxford Univ.; called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn.
Professor of Roman Law at Sind Muslim Law College Karachi; Assistant Public Prosecutor, Sind; Public Prosecutor and Government Advocate, Chief Commissioner's Province, Karachi, 52-61; elevated to the Bench of the High Court of W.P., 1961.

KHAN, Justice Faizullah, B.Sc., LL.B., ed: Muslim Univ., Aligarh.
Sub-Judge Provincial Civil Service, 39; Registrar, Judicial Commissioner's

Court of former NWFP, 48; Judicial Member of the Income Tax Appellate Tribunal, Karachi 59; Additional Judge High Court of West Pakistan, 61; permanent Judge High Court of W.P., 63.

AHMAD, Justice Bashir Uddin, B.A., LL.B., b: May 25, 10; ed: Punjab Univ. Started Practice, 33; served as District and Sessions Judge, Jhelum, Sargodha, Rawalpindi, Sialkot and Lahore; Law Secretary, Govt. of W.P., 59; elevated to the Bench as Additional Judge and appointed Judge of High Court, 63.

JAN, Justice Shakirullah, b: Dec. 12, 08; ed: King's College, Barrister-at-law. Appointed Sub-Judge 1936, Civil Judge and Senior Civil Judge; additional District and Sessions Judge till 61; elevated to the Bench of the High Court, 61, and confirmed permanent Judge, 64.

HUSAIN, Justice Mushtaq, S.PK., M.A., LL.B., b: June 21, 22; ed: Muslim Univ., Aligarh.
Entered legal profession, 42; Municipal Chairman, migrated to Pakistan, 47; enrolled Pleader High Court, Lahore; part-time Lecturer and Reader, Law College, Lahore, 50-59; President, Bar Assocn., Lahore; Secretary, All Pakistan Bar Assocn., 55-57; Assistant Advocate-Gen., W.P., 59-60; additional Advocate-Gen., W.P., 60-62; Judge, High Court of W.P., 62; Secry., Ministry of Law and Parliamentary Affairs, Govt. of Pakistan, 63-64.

HAMID, Justice Malik Abdul, B.A., LL.B., b: March 16, 08; ed: Punjab Univ. Government Advocate, Bahawalpur; Judge, High Court, Bahawalpur, 51; Member, Election Tribunal; District and Sessions Judge, Sahiwal and Lahore; Law Secretary, Govt. of W.P., 61; elevated to the Bench of the High Court of W.P., 64.

SHAIKH, Justice A.R., B.A., LL.B., b: Sept., 13; ed: Punjab Univ. Started practice, 17; enrolled advocate High Court and later Supreme Court, Lahore; taught Civil Law at the Lahore Law College; appointed Judge, High Court of W.P., 64.

AKRAM, Justice Malik Muhammad, B.A., LL.B., b: 1913; ed. Punjab Univ. Practised at the High Court and Supreme Court, Lahore. Appointed Judge, High Court of W.P., 65.

ALY, Justice Feroze Nana Ghulam, Order of Merit (Federal Republic of Germany) B.A., LL.B., b: Aug. 1, 09; ed: Bombay Univ. and Muslim Univ. Aligarh. Joined Judicial Service, 37; Secretary, Sind Legislative Assembly, 41-44; elevated to the Bench of the High Court of W.P., 62.

AWAN, Justice Kadir Nawaz Shah Nawaz, B.A., LL.B., b: Aug. 20, 08; ed: Bombay Univ.
Practised at Sukkur, 38; served as Civil Judge, Additional Sessions Judge, District Judge and Solicitor to Govt. of W.P.; District and Sessions Judge; elevated to the Bench as High Court Judge, 64.

GUL, Justice Muhammad, S.K., B.A., LL.B., b: Jan 1, 12; ed: Punjab Univ. Practised for six years at the Bar; Joined Judicial Services, 38; served as Civil Judge; Solicitor, Govt. of Pakistan, 60; elevated to the Bench of the High Court, 65.

CHEEMA, Justice Muhammad Afzal, M.A., LL.B., b: 1913; ed: Punjab Univ. Practised at Lyallpur, 48-62; elected member, Punjab Assembly, 51, and National Assembly, 62; also elected Senior Deputy Speaker, National Assembly, 62. Represented Pakistan at the UN, 62, and for some time acted as head of the delegation; led Pakistan's Parliamentary delegation to Inter-Parliamentary Union Conference at Belgrade, 63 and Rumania, 64; Senior Additional Judge, High Court of W.P., 65.

KHATTAK, Justice Abdul Ghani Khan, B.A., LL.B., b: 1916; ed: Punjab Univ., and Muslim Univ., Aligarh. Practiced at the Bar; Deputy Minister, Govt of W.P. Appointed High Court Judge, 65.

SHAIKH, Justice Abdul Kadir, B.A., LL.B., b: March 25, 26; ed: Bombay Univ. Enrolled as Advocate of Sind Chief Court, 48, and subsequently of W.P. High Court and Supreme Court of Pakistan. Served as Assistant Advocate-Gen. Karachi, 57; deputed by the Govt. of Pakistan to U.S.A. for one year under Congressional Fellowship Programme, 60; Additional Advocate-Gen., W.P., 63; elevated to the Bench, 65.

CHAUHAN, Justice K.E., B.A., LL.B., b: Aug. 12, 18; ed: Punjab Univ. Started practise in Lahore, 49; part-time lecturer at Law College, Lahore; part-time legal advisor, Rehabilitation Department, Govt. of W.P.; elected President of the W.P. High Court Bar Assocn, 58; appointed Judge, High Court, 65.

KHAN, Justice Muhammad Fazle Ghani, B.A., LL.B.; b: Dec. 30, 22; ed: Punjab Univ. Started practise; Secretary, District Bar Assocn.; Honorary Member, High Court Bar Assocn.; Vice-President, High Court Bar Assocn; Prof., Law College, Lahore, 58-63; Member, Governing Board, All-Pakistan Legal Centre; Legal Advisor, Bank of Bhawalpur, National Commercial Bank; Senior Counsel for the Chief Administrator of Auqaf; appointed Judge, High Court of W.P., 65.

ALI, Justice Shaukat, B.A., LL.B., b: Sept. 15, 28; ed: Punjab Univ. Enrolled as Pleader Lahore; advocate of High Court, 52; Secretary, Lahore District Bar Assocn; enrolled as advocate of Supreme Court of Pakistan, 58; President, Lahore Lawyer's Assocn. Appointed High Court Judge, 65.

ARFIN, Justice Noorul, M.A., LL.B., b: June 10, 23; ed: Muslim Univ. Aligarh and Delhi Univ. Enrolled as Advocate of Chief Court Sind, 48; Legal Advisor, Income Tax

Department, Karachi, 62; Additional Judge, High Court of W.P., 66.

SAJJAD, Justice Ataullah, B.A., LL.B., b: June 24, 14; ed: Punjab Univ. Practised at Gujrat and Gujranwala; Secretary, High Court Bar Assocn., 59; Member, Provincial Bar Council and Secretary, First Pakistan Bar Council; appointed Advocate-Gen., 61; Additional Advocate-Gen., 63; elevated to the Bench, 66:

KADRI, Justice Shamim Husain, B.A., LL.B., b: Oct 20, 20; ed: Punjab Univ. Started practice at Lahore; advocate, Federal (now Supreme) Court of Pakistan; lecturer, Constitutional Law, Univ. Law College, Lahore; elected member, Punjab Legislative Assembly, 50; General Secretary, Anjuman-e-Himayatul-Islam for several years; member, W.P. Assembly, 56. Appointed High Court Judge, 66.

KHAN, Justice Sher Bahadur, B.A., LL.B., b: March 1, 20; ed: Islamia College, Peshawar, Muslim Univ., Aligarh.
Joined Provincial Civil Service, 44; served as Senior Civil Judge, 48-53; Secretary, Govt. of former NWFP Rehabilitation Department and Rehabilitation Commissioner, 53-54; Deputy Commissioner, Mardan, 54-55; Secretary, to the Chief Minister, W.P.; Officer on Special Duty, Law Department, W.P.; Additional District and Sessions Judge, Peshawar and Lahore; Solicitor to Govt. of W.P. 64-67; elevated to the Bench, 67.

MEMBERS NATIONAL ASSEMBLY

KHAN, Abdul Jabbar, Speaker, elected 65; b: Jan. 1902; ed: Dacca Univ. Joined Bengal Judicial Service, 29; Addl. Distt. and Sessions Judge, 50; Distt. and Sessions Judge, 51; Judge, Dacca High Court, 56; retired from Government Service, 62; Chairman, Sylhet Police Firing Inquiry Commission; Chairman, Tripura and Assam Refugee Inquiry Commission; joined Muslim League, 63; President, E.P. Muslim League, 63; ex-officio vice-President, Pakistan Muslim League and a member of the Pakistan Muslim League Working Committee; led Parliamentary Delegation to Inter Parliamentary Union Conference, Ottawa, 65; closely associated with several public institutions in the district.

ELAHI, Choudhury Fazal, Senior Dy. Speaker, elected on Muslim League ticket, 65: b: 1904; ed: Aligarh Muslim Univ.
Joined Bar at Gujrat, 29; President, Distt. Muslim League, 44; elected to the Punjab Assembly, 45; after Independence, became Parliamentary Secy. Punjab Govt.; Minister, Education and Health, Punjab Government, 48; re-elected to the Punjab Assembly, 51; attended UN General Assembly as a delegate from Pakistan; elected to the W.P. Assembly, 55; Speaker of the W.P. Assembly, 56-58; elected to the N.A., 62.

MATEEN, Al-Haj A.T.M. Abdul, Dy. Speaker, elected 65; b: 1925; ed: Aligarh Muslim League Univ. and Cornell Univ., U.S.A. Professor of Economics,

Govt. Engineering College, Dacca, 50-59; Dir. of Franklin Book Programmes Inc., Dacca, for ten years; Secy.-Gen., Motamar-e-Alam-e-Islami, E.P. Branch; member: Pakistan Assocn. for Advancement of Science, Pakistan Economics Assocn., and E.P. Seerat Majlis; attended sessions of UN Assembly in New York, 52-53.
Publs: : translated 150 science books into Bengali and helped in preparing a Bengali Islamic Encyclopaedia.

ABBASI, Brig. Sahibzada Mohammad Abbas. Elected to N.A. from Bahawalpur-cum-Rahimyar Khan on Muslim League ticket, 65; Amir of Bahawalpur, 66; b: March, 1924; ed: Aitchison College, Lahore.
Served in Bahawalpur State Forces; state minister; Dy. Prime Minister, Bahawalpur State, 46-51; later Executive Councillor and leader of the House in the first State Majlis of Bahawalpur. During World War II served in the Army in Burma and Assam; State Scout Commissioner; represented Pakistan at International Jamborees.

AHMAD, Moulana Abul Hafeez Mohsinuddin, (Pir Dudu Miah). Elected from Faridpur on National Democratic Front ticket, 65; b: Feb. 2, 17; ed: Madrasah Islamia, Dacca, later at Deoband.
Member, Krishak Praja Party; joined Muslim League, 45; Secy., Distt. Muslim League, Faridpur; joined Nizam-i-Islam Party, 52; elected to the E.P. Assembly on United Front ticket, 54; took prominent part in organising National Democratic Front in East Pakistan.

AHMAD, Paniruddin. Elected from Rangpur on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1908; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Joined Muslim League, 37; President, Local Union Board; member, Rangpur Distt. Board; elected to the Bengal Legislative Assembly on Muslim League ticket, 46; after Independence served as Parliamentary Secy. in the Provincial Assembly; worked as President of the Distt. Muslim League; elected to the Provincial Assembly and became leader of the Party, 54; also acted as Gen.-Secy., of E.P. Muslim League; member, Provincial and Central Muslim League Working Committees till 58; associated with a number of educational institutions; Vice-Chairman of Rangpur Distt. Council.

AHMED, Ch. Sultan, B.A., LL.B. Elected on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1914, Member, Sargodha Div. Council and Lyallpur Improvement Trust, 60; member, W.P. Assembly, 62-65; Joint Secy., W.P. Muslim League Assembly Party, 62-65; President, Multan Chamber of Comm. and Ind., 62; member, Working Committee, W.P. Provincial Muslim League since 1964.

AHMED, Fakhruddin. Elected from Mymensingh on Muslim League ticket, 65; ed: Dacca Univ.
Started legal practice Mymensingh, 31; joined Muslim League, 37, and helped in oiganising the Party in the Distt.; elected Vice-President of the Mymensingh Distt. School Board and continued till 1924; member N.A., 62.

AHMED, Hemayetuddin. Elected from Khulna on Muslim League ticket, 65, b: 1902, ed: Calcutta Univ.
Entered politics, 18; joined Muslim League, 46; Secy., Bagherhat School; member, Govering Body of the Bagherhat College; Secy., Bagherhat Co-operative Windmills; member, Distt. Council; Chairman, Union Council and President Sub-Div. Muslim League.

AHMED, Begum Mariam Hashimuddin. Elected from Women's Constituency on Muslim League ticket, 65; ed: Rangoon and Calcutta.
Keenly interested in education of women and children and established schools for them; also worked as Hony. Headmistress for sometime; represented Pakistan at the 9th International Conference of Social Welfare Workers at Tokyo, 58; also represented All Pakistan Women's Assocn. at the UNO seminar held at Warsaw, 63; visited Middle East, North Africa, Europe and U.K.
Publs: Author of two approved text books.

AHMED, Raisuddin. Elected from Mymensingh on Muslim League ticket, 65; Parliamentary Secy. incharge of Scientific and Technological Div.; ed: Dacca Univ.
Worked as teacher and then Professor for 27 years; later worked as Principal of the local college, President, East Pakistan Teachers' Assocn. for eight consecutive years; for some time served as Assistant Editor Pakistan Observer, Dacca; founder of All-Pakistan Teachers Confederation which is affiliated to the World Confederation of Teaching Profession and attended its annual session at Stockholm; joined Muslim League, 41.
Publs: Edited several journals and translated important books of the poet Nazrul Islam, into English.

AHMED, Dr. Sarafatuddin. Elected from Mymensingh on Muslim League ticket, 65. b: 1893; ed: National Medical College, Calcutta, 18.
Vice-President, Distt. Board; member, Distt. School Board and All-India Local Self Govt. Assocn; active social worker; established a high school and several charitable dispensaries in his Distt.

AHMED, Al-Haj Moulvi Sultan. Elected from Chittagong Muslim League 65; b: March 23, 03; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Advocate, Dacca High Court, 56; took active part in Khilafat Movement; later joined Muslim League; President, Union Board for nine years; founded number of schools and madrashahs in Chittagong; Secy., Madrashahs Darul-Uloom, Chittagong, for sixteen years; visited Burma and Saudi Arabia.

AKRAM, Begum Mujibunissa. Elected from West Pakistan reserved seats for women on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1923.
Represented Pakistan at the Council for Child Welfare, Ankara, 62; member, Pakistan delegation to the 17th General Assembly of UN; associated with Khatoon-i-Pakistan Educational and Social Welfare Fund, Society for Rehabilitation of Crippled Children, Pakistan Council for Child Welfare, Patients Welfare Project and National Federation for Blind.

ALI, Abdul, Alias Menu Mia. Elected on Muslim League ticket, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Kashmir Affairs Div.; b: Nov. 1904.
Started Legal practice; joined Muslim League, 37; associated with various educational and social welfare organisations in his home Distt.

ALI, Mahmud, B.A. Elected from Sylhet on National Democratic Front ticket, 65; b: Sept. 1, 19; ed: St. Anthony College.
Elected President, Assam Muslim Students Federation; member, Assam Muslim League Working Committee, 44; later elected Gen.-Secy. Assam Muslim League; jailed for agitation against line system in Assam which restricted movement of Bengali-speaking muslims in the Province; worked for the Muslim League in Sylhet referendum; President, E.P. Youth League, 51; organized Ganatantri Dal; elected to the Provincial Assembly, 54, and to the Second Constituent Assembly, 55; Minister, E.P., 56; after merger of Ganatantri Dal Party with the National Awami Party, 57, he became its Gen. Secy.; later organised the National Democratic Front and elected its Gen. Secy.; visited Ghana, 58.

ALI, Al-Haj Md. Karamat. Elected from Sylhet on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1905.
Tea planter and businessman; joined freedom movement, 37; remained Chairman of Local Board for 18 years; elected to E.P. Assembly, 54; associated with several Banks and Insurance Companies as Dir.

ALI, Miah Mohammad Mansur. Elected from Jessore-cum-Kushtia on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1930.
Associated with Pakistan movement since student days; started own business at Daulatpur, Kushtia, 53; widely travelled abroad.

ALI, Moulvi Mobarak, B.A. Elected from Jessore on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1908.
Headmaster for ten years; joined Muslim League, 44; Secy., Distt. Board, Jessore till 1950; keenly interested in educational development; member, Distt. School Board, Jessore, and Distt. Development Board.

ALI, Mohammad Yusuf. Elected from Dinajpur on Combined Opposition Parties ticket, 65; b: 1928; ed: Dinajpur College, Dacca and Rajshahi Univ.
Took active part in Pakistan movement as a student; Professor, Dinajpur College, Dinajpur; member, Awami League, 55; elected to Provincial Assembly, 62, and remained with the Opposition group; associated with various cultural and educational institutions in the Distt.

AMIN, Nurul, B.A., LL.B. Elected from Mymensingh on National Democratic Front ticket, 65; b: 1897; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Joined Bar at Mymensingh, 24; served as Chairman of the Mymensingh Distt. Board for ten years; elected to the Bengal Council, 42; elected Vice-President of the Bengal Muslim League; member, Bengal Legislative Assembly, 46; Speaker till Independence. Minister in the Khwaja Nazimuddin Ministry in E.P. after Independence; leader of the Muslim League Assembly Party and

Chief Minister, E.P., 48-54; later Organized the National Democratic Front and elected President; led Pakistan Delegation to ECOSOC Conference at Geneva and toured Europe, 50.

AMIN, Moulvi Ruhul. Elected from Noakhali on Muslim League ticket, 65; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
Gen.-Secy. of the Muslim Students' League, 38; joined Bar at Noakhali, 55; worked for Muslim League in the general elections held in 1946 and 1954; member: Working Committee of the Distt. Muslim League, Governing Body of Noakhali College, Executive Committee of Distt. Bar Assocn., and Distt. Council.

AURANGZEB, Miangul, B.A. Elected from Peshawar Agency on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1928; ed: Pakistan Military Academy, Kakul.
Joined Armed Forces as a Commissioned Officer, 50; resigned commission, 55; elected to the W.P. Assembly from Swat, 55; elected to the N.A. in 1962.

AWAL, Abul. Elected from Dacca on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1921.
Advocate by profession; elected member of the Provincial Assembly, 62, and appointed Parliamentary Secy. for Law and Plan. Chairman, Muslim League Parliamentary Fact Finding Committee which selected candidates for the Provincial Assembly; keenly interested in the development of education.

Bakaul, Abdur Rahman, Elected from Faridpur on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1919; ed. Dacca Univ.
Joined Govt. service, 39; resigned from service and joined Bar at Faridpur, 50; Organised Awami League in his Distt. and was elected its Vice-President; Secy., Faridpur Bar Assocn., 57; Vice-President, Faridpur Municipal Committee and member, District Council, 60; associated with various educational institutions in his Distt.; joined Pakistan Muslim League, 63.

BHANDARI, Habibur Rahman. Elected from Bogra on Muslim League ticket, 65. b: 1919; ed: Dacca Univ.
Industrialist owning several mills and factories including a cotton mill, a tenrary and soap factory; elected to the N.A. in a by-election, 62; a known social worker and promoter of education; donated large sums of money for starting educational institutions; member: Tariff and Taxation Commission, Investment Advisory Council, Karachi, High Powered Facilities Board of the Industries Deptt. of the E.P. Govt. Development and Plan. Committee, Rajshahi Univ. Syndicate and Rajshahi Div. Council; widely travelled abroad.

BHUIYA, Abdul Awal. Elected from Comilla on Muslim League ticket, 65; Parliamentary Secy., Ministry of Foreign Affairs; ed: Dacca Univ.
Member, Bengal Students Muslim League and President E.P. Transport Contractors' Assocn., 49-50; member, E.P. Assembly, 62; member Electoral College of Pakistan, 64; member, E.P. Muslim League Council, and Finance Committee of Secondary and Intermediate Education; associated with various social and educational institutions.

BHUTTO, Mumtaz Ali. Elected from Larkana on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1934; ed: Christ Church College, Oxford.
Called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn, 59; returned to Pakistan and started practice at the High Court in Karachi, 59; joined Muslim League and worked for re-organising the Pakistan Muslim League in Sind, 61; member, Distt. Muslim League Working Committee.

BOSAN, Muhammad Akram Khan, S.Q.A. Elected from Multan on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1911.
Recruiting Officer and Hony. Mag.; elected senior Vice-Chairman of the Multan Distt. Board, 44; joined Muslim League, 40; elected to undivided Punjab Assembly, 46; elected to the Punjab Assembly, 51; elected to the N.A., 62.

CHOUDHURY, Aftabuddin. Elected from Mymensingh on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1912.
A Muslim Leaguer since 1936 and rendered valuable services to the party; actively associated with National Guards and Ansar Organisations; member, Distt. Board, Mymensingh and Div. Council, Dacca; publicity Secy., Dacca Muslim League.

CHOUDHURY, Ajmal Ali. Elected from Sylhet Independent; b: 1914.
Joined Muslim League, 37; member, All-India Muslim League Council till Independence; also member Assam Provincial Muslim League Working Committee and Council; Municipal Commissioner, 44; member, Working Committee of E.P. Muslim League, 47; served as convener of the Sylhet Distt. Muslim League, 54; member, Pakistan Muslim League Council and Organising Committee of E.P. Provincial Muslim League; President, *Viswabidyalay Sangram Parishad*, Sylhet.

CHOUDHURY, Yeahia Khan. Elected from Sylhet on Muslim League ticket, 65; b: 1903; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta.
Associated with Khilafat Movement, 21; joined the Assam Civil Service; opted for Pakistan; served as Secy. to the E.P. Govt.; Transport Commissioner, E.P.; General Manager, Mohini Textile Mills, Kushtia; Chairman, Social Welfare Committee, Kushtia; member, Governing Bodies of several educational institutions; visited UK, Europe and Egypt, 56.

CHOUDHURY, Khan Fazle Rub. Elected from Bakerganj National Democratic Front, 65; b: 1917; ed: B.M. College, Barisal. Joined Muslim League, 42; left Muslim League, 52; joined the United Front, 54; vice-Chairman, Bakerganj Distt. Board.

CHOUDHURY, Mujibar Rahman. Elected from Rajshahi Independent, 65; b: 1926; ed: Calcutta Univ.
First President of the Distt. Awami League, Rajshahi; took leading part in the elections held in 1954 in East Pakistan and guided elections of United Front candidates in his Distt.

CHOUDHURY, Muazzam Ahmad. Elected from Sylhet Muslim League, 65; b: 1922; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Secy., Muslim Students League, Calcutta; for sometime worked during Sylhet referendum; a businessman of East Pakistan; also associated with a number of welfare organisations and companies.

CHOUDHURY, Nurul Haque. Elected from Dinajpur Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Commerce; b: 1909; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Entered politics, 32; Secy. Sub-Div. Muslim League, Thakurgaon, 36; Vice-President, Distt. Board, Dinajpur, 56-58; Chairman, Thakurgaon Municipal Committee, 57; President, Thakurgaon Bar Assocn; Secy. Thakurgaon Multilateral High School, 52; member, Thakurgaon College, 57; elected to the N.A. and Parliamentary Secy. for Communications, 62; a well known social worker.

CHOUDHURY, Nurul Huda. Elected from Dinajpur-cum-Bogra Muslim League, 65; b: 1904; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Joined Muslim League, 37; attended Lahore session of Muslim League when the Pakistan Resolution was passed; member, Distt. Board, Dinajpur, 46-58; Vice-President, Dinajpur Muslim League; member, Provincial Assembly, 62; founder of three Colleges; Secy., Raja Rampur High School and associated with several schools, madrassas and charitable institutions of the Distt.

CHOWDHURY, A.K.M. Fazlul Quader. Elected from Chittagong Muslim League, 65; b: 1919; ed: Presidency College, Calcutta and Dacca Univ.
Associated with politics, 38; took active part in the Holwell Monument Movement in Calcutta; elected Gen. Secy., All-India Muslim Students Federation, 41; elected to the E.P. Legislative Assembly, 54; Secy., Provincial Muslim League Relief Committee; Port Commissioner for the port of Chittagong, 59; elected to the N.A., Minister, Food, Agri., and Works; Inform. and Broad., 62; Speaker, N.A., 63-65; resigned from Pakistan Muslim League and joined Council Muslim League; attended U.N. General Assembly session, 54; also visited U.K., Europe, the Soviet Union and Middle East.

CHOWDHURY, Aminul Islam. Elected from Comilla-cum-Noakhali Independent, 65; b: 1921; ed Calcutta Univ.
President of the Bengal and Bihar Riots Relief Mission; member, Bengal Famine Relief Committee; Dy. Chief Refugee Administrator, 47-48; President, E.P. Chamber of Commerce and Ind., 54; represented Pakistan at the 12th session of ECAFE at Bangkok; a social worker, helped in setting up several schools in Chittagong and his home Distt.

CHOWDHURY, Giasuddin. Elected from Chittagong-cum-Chittagong Hill Tracts Muslim League, 65; b: 1930.
Joined Home Guard rehabilitating refugees from Burma during World War II; keenly interested in promotion of education; also interested in industrial development of lesser-developed areas of his Distt.; senior vice-President, Chittagong Chamber of Commerce; life member of International Red Cross Society and member of the Pakistan Railway Advisory Board.

CHOWDHURY, Md. Sirajul Islam. Elected from Chittagong Muslim League, 65; b: 1927; ed: Dacca Univ.
Joined Bar at Chittagong, 51; Secy., Chittagong Distt. Muslim League till 1958; Organising Secy., Muslim League, 62; Secy., Gasbaria High School for the last twelve years; keenly interested in development of education; organised Chittagong City College, Chittagong City Law College and Co-operative Movement in the Distt.; Chairman of Union of Co-operative Societies.

CHOWDHURY, Mizanur Rahman. Elected from Comilla Combined Opposition Parties, 65; b: 1931.
Vice-Chairman, Chandpur Municipality, 60; elected to the N.A. 62; member, E.P. Regional Road Transport Authority and member of Distt. Council.

CHOWDHURY, Rahimullah. Elected from Noakhali Independent, 65; b: 1922; ed: Chittagong.
Industrialist; Dir., E.P. P.I.D.C., and connected with E.P. Inland Water Transport Authority and Narayanganj Dockyard; member, Provincial Red Cross Society and Co-operative Marketing Society.

FAIZ, Begum Razia. Elected from E.P. reserved seats for women Muslim League 65; daughter of Syed Badrudduja; b: 1936; ed: Calcutta Univ.; also obtained Montessori Diploma in Child Education from UK, 60.
Organised a private residential public school at Khulna; President, Women's Voluntary Assocn., Khulna; Vice-President, Khulna Nari Kalyan Samity; member: Executive Committee of Khulna, T.B. Assocn; Maternity and Child Welfare Centre, and Div. Relief Co-ordination Committee; Secy. Div. Ladies Relief Committee.

FAKIR, Afazuddin, B.A. Elected from Mymensingh Independent, 65; b: 1925.
Joined a Commercial firm at Chittagong; started jute business at Narayanganj, 54; member, Provincial Jute Advisory Board for two terms; member, Pakistan Jute Commission and visited European countries as a delegate of the Jute Enquiry Commission, 60; Vice-Chairman, Pakistan Jute Assocn., 62-63; visited China and Indonesia as a member of the official trade delegation, 64; Vice-Chairman of Small Shippers Corpn; member, Rlys. Advisory Committee.

GAFUR, Abdul. Elected from Khulna Muslim League, 65. b: 1924.
Businessman by profession and President of Local Merchants' Assocn.; Chairman, Satkhira Town Committee; member, Distt. Council and Regional Transport Authority; Councillor, Provincial and Central Muslim League.

GHUMAN, Al-Haj Captain Chaudhury Ahmad Khan. Elected from Sialkot Muslim League, 65; b: 1908; ed: Aligarh Muslim Univ.
Joined Army during World War II; after release from the Army served as Supdtt. Jails; retired from service, 64.

GILANI, Makhdumzada Syed Hamid Raza. Bar-at-law. Elected from Multan Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy., Home Affairs; b: August; 36; ed: Govt.

College, Lahore.
Called to the Bar at Lincolns Inn', 60; (Toured U.S.A. as student Ambassador of Rotary International, 59); obtained diploma in International Law from the Academy of International Law; Elected to the N.A. and Parliamentary Secy. for Home Affairs, 62; delegate to the 13th U.N. General Assembly, 63; represented Pakistan at inauguration of President of Argentina and inauguration of Masjid-e-Aqsa at Jerusaleum, 64.

HAI, Al-Haj Moulana Mohammad Abdul. Elected from Noakhali Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy., for Education; b: 1901; ed: Deoband.
Member, Working Committee of the All-India Muslim League, 37-46; also took part in the Khilafat Movement; elected to Bengal Provincial Assembly, 46; elected to East Bengal Provincial Assembly on Muslim League ticket, 54; represented Pakistan at the International Islamic Conference, 55; member, Islamic Advisory Council, 63; Vice-President, E.P. Muslim League.

HAMID, Sardar Abdul. Elected from Lahore Muslim League, 65; b: 1915; ed: Govt. College, Lahore.
Member, Distt. Board, Lahore; Chairman, Market Committee, Pattoki; member of the Punjab Assembly, 51; elected to the N.A., 62.

HAQUE, Mian Abdul. Bar-at-law. Elected from Sahiwal Muslim League, 65; b:1908; ed: Islamia College, Lahore and London Univ.
Joined the Muslim League; elected to the Punjab Legislative Assembly, 46; Chief Parliamentary Secy. 47; elected to the Punjab Assembly on Jinnah Awami Muslim League and re-joined Muslim League, 53; re-organised Muslim League in Sahiwal Distt.; member, W.P. Muslim League Working Committee; associated with various educational and social welfare organisations.

HASHMI, Mian Muzaffar Mehdi. Elected from Muzaffargarh Muslim League, 65; b: 1928; ed: Govt. College, Lahore, and London Univ.
President, London Univ. Pakistan Society and Vice-President of Debating Society of School of Oriental and African Studies, London; Lecturer, Govt. College, Lyallpur, and Punjab Univ., President Muzaffargarh Distt. Muslim League.

HUQ, Shah Nazibul. Elected from Bakerganj Muslim League, 65; b: March 23, 10; ed: Ripon Law College, Calcutta.
Joined the Bar, 37; same year joined Muslim League; later elected to the Provincial Muslim League Council; associated with a number of educational and other institutions in the Distt.

IFTIKHAR, Mian Arif. Elected from Lahore Independent, 65; b:1934; ed: Aitchison College, Lahore, and Cambridge Univ.
President, Cambridge Univ. Majlis and founder-President of Bandung Society at Cambridge.

IQBAL, Ch. Muhammad. Elected from Sheikhupura Muslim League, 65; b: 1920; de: Punjab Univ.

Joined the Bar, 46; member, Muslim Students Federation; political detenu 46; Chairman, Sheikhupura Distt. Board 48-58; associated with various welfare organisations including the local high school, Distt. Education Committee, and Central Co-operative Bank; President Distt. Muslim League and Hilal-e-Ahmar of Pakistan.

IRSHAD-Ullah, Mohammad. Elected from Gujranwala Muslim League, 65; b: 1922; ed: Govt. College, Lahore.
Joined Muslim League, 40; elected Secy., Gujranwala Distt. Muslim League; Councillor, All-India Muslim League for five years; elected to the N.A. 62; keenly interested in agriculture, is an advocate of modern farming methods.

ISLAM, Abu Bashar Mohammad Nurul, M.A., B.L. Elected from Faridpur-cum-Dacca Combined Opposite Parties, 65; b: 1937.
Represented Pakistan at International Students Conference at Malaya, 50; vice-President of Fazlul Haque Muslim Hall Union; joined Dacca High Court Bar, 60; Asstt. Secy., High Court Bar Assocn., Dacca, 61; Secy., Awami League and member of the Standing Committee on Foreign Affairs of the N.A.

JAMIL, Commodore Khalid. Elected from Karachi Muslim League, 65; b: 1914; ed: Lucknow Univ.
Joined Volunteers Reserve of the Navy, 37; permanently Commissioned, 39; served in Indian Ocean and Pacific Ocean during World War II; member, Partition Defence Assets Committee in Delhi; Commandent, Refugee Camps Karachi, 48; retired as Chief of Staff Pakistan Navy, 55; President, Services Sports Control Board and Pakistan Squash Racket Assocn.; elected to the N.A., 62; presently President of Div. Muslim League, Karachi.

JATOI, Abdul Hamid Khan. Elected from Dadu Muslim League, 65; b: 22:
Joined Muslim League, 45; member, Sind Legislative Assembly, 53; joined National Awami Party and elected a member of W.P. Assembly, 56; re-joined Muslim League, 64; President of the 'Tanzeem', a social welfare Organisation at Dadu; Dir., Talika Agricultural Bank.

JATOI, Ghulam Mustafa Khan. Elected from Nawabshah Muslim League, 65; b: 1931; ed: Grammar School, Karachi.
President, Distt. Local Board, Nawabshah, till, 58; elected to W.P. Assembly, 56; elected to the N.A. 62; represented Pakistan at the UN General Assembly, 42.

KAMARUZZAMAN, A.H.M., (Hena). Elected from Rajshahi Combined Opposition Parties, 65; Secy., United Parliamentary Party; b: 1926; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Before Independence, was the first President of All-Bengal Muslim Students' League; Commissioner, Rajshahi Municipality, 56; Secy., Combined Opposition Parties in the first N.A., 62; Secy., Rajshahi Distt. Awami League and member of the Awami League's Central Executive.

KHAIRUDDIN, S.K. Elected from Dacca National Democratic Front 65; b:19 21; Member, E.P. Muslim League Working Committee after Independence; member, Dacca Municipality, 60; later on its vice-Chairman; elected to the E.P. Assembly, and was Chief Whip of the Opposition Party, 42; member, National Democratic Front; member, Working Committee of the Council Muslim League.

KHAN, Abdul Awal. Elected from Rangpur Muslim League, 65; b: 1917; ed: Islamia College, Calcutta.
Keenly interested in politics since student days and organized various Muslim Students Assocns., later joined Pakistan Movement; elected to the N.A., 62; a known social worker.

KHAN, Atahar Ali. Elected from Khulna-cum-Bakerganj Muslim League, 65; b: 1920; ed: Calcutta.
Businessman, 42; joined Awami league, 50; and left it, 55; joined Pakistan Muslim League, 62; President, Union Board; Chairman, Union Council and Member of Div. Council; also associated with many educational institutions in his Distt.

KHAN, Bashir Ahmed. Elected from Sheikhupura Muslim League, 65; b: 25; ed: Punjab Univ.
As student took active part in the Pakistan Movement; member, Distt. Board, 55-58; Vice-President, Central Cooperative Bank, Nankana Sahib; Dir., Provincial Cooperative Bank; member, Punjab Assembly and also Parliamentary Secy., 51; associated with the Pakistan National Guards.

KHAN, Ch. Jalil Ahmed. Elected from Gujranwala Muslim League, 65; b: 1923; ed: Mahindra College, Patiala and Law College, Lahore.
After Independence settled at Gujranwala and started legal practice; member, All India States Muslim League, 44; elected to the N.A., 62; Dir., Central Cooperative Bank and Chairman of Lahore Pattoki Bus Service.

KHAN, Fida Mohammad. Elected from Peshawar Muslim League, 65; b: 1919; ed: Edwards College, Peshawar, and Law College, Aligarh.
Joined Muslim League and organised Quaid-i-Azam National Guards, 44; President, Peshawar City Muslim League, 45-49; jailed for political activity during Referendum in the former NWFP; appointed Referendum Commissioner for Peshawar by the Muslim League Party; Convenor, Committee for the Defence of Constitutional Rights, 53; member, Pakistan Delegation to UN for Kashmir Debate, 54; member, Good will Mission to Middle Eastern Countries; member, first Press Commission; member, All Pakistan Muslim League Working Committee and Muslim League Parliamentary Board.

KHAN, Captain Gohar Ayub. Elected from Hazara Muslim League, 65; b: 1937. Joined the Pakistan Army after training at Pre-Cadet Training School, Quetta and Sandhurst, 54; while at Sandhurst became Cadet Sergeant; Commissioned 14th Punjab Regt.; Resigned, 1962; entered business.

KHAN, Ismail, B.A., B.T. Elected from Bakerganj Independent 65; b: 1962.
Associated with political movements since his college days; after Independence joined a high school as teacher and continued as such till his election to the N.A.

KHAN, Khuda Dad. Elected from Sargodha Muslim League, 65; b: 26; ed: Sargodha Govt. College.
Member, Distt. Board, 53; elected to Provincial Assembly, 55; after the introduction of B.D. system, elected Chairman of Jaura Sakesar Union Council and member of Sargodha Distt. Council; elected to the N.A., 62.

KHAN, Begum Khudeja G.A. Elected from West Pakistan reserved seats for women Muslim League, 65; ed: Punjab Univ.
Worked as Headmistress for several years; closely associated with Girl Guides Movement in Pakistan; Chief Commissioner of Girl Guides since 47; associated with All-Pakistan Women Assocn., and Pakistan Red Cross Society; Councillor, Lahore Corpn.; member, Punjab Assembly, 51-55; Dy. Minister, Social Welfare, W.P. Govt., 56; elected to the N.A., 62; a well known social and political worker.

KHAN, Khurshid Ahmed. Elected from Mymensingh Muslim League, 65; b: 1911.
President, Sub-Divisional Muslim League; member, Pakistan Muslim League and Distt. Council, Mymensingh; associated with a number of Public welfare organisations including the Multipurpose Cooperative Society and Fishermen's Society in his sub-Div.; member, Farmer's Delegation from Pakistan to USA in 1963.

KHAN, Malik Allah Yar, B.A., LL.B. Elected from Campbellpur Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy., Min. of Inform. and Broad. b: 1927.
Joined Muslim League, 45; started practising at Campbellpur, 51; member, W.P. Assembly, 56; member, N.A. and Parliamentary Secy., Min. of Inform., 62; Pakistani Delegate to Inter-Regional Rural Youth Conference, Rome, 53; SEATO Conference at Saigon, 57, and a Conference at Geneva, 63; also led a Parliamentary Delegation to the Commonwealth Parliamentary Assocn., Conference, Wellington, New Zealand, 65.

KHAN, Malik Damsaz. Elected from Bannu Muslim League, 65; b: 1890.
By profession a businessman and zamindar; entered politics as Muslim Leaguer, 38; attended Lahore Session of Muslim League at which Pakistan Resolution was passed; worked for Referendum in former NWFP; jailed by Congress Ministry; remained President of Bannu Distt. Muslim League for many years; renounced his title at the call of Quaid-i-Azam, 46; actively helped Kashmir Liberation Movement; member, Muslim League Fact-Finding Committe; appointed to select candidates for the N.A. for Peshawar Div.

KHAN, Malik Darya Wazir Madi Khel Tori Khel, S.K. Elected from D.I. Khan Agency on Muslim League ticket, 65; elected to the N.A., 62.

KHAN, Malik Muhammad Anwar. Elected from Sargodha Muslim League, 65. b: 1934; ed: F.C. College, Lahore.
Agriculturist by profession; interested in politics since his student days; President, Sargodha Distt. Muslim League; widely travelled abroad.

KHAN, Malik Muzaffar, LL.B. Elected from Mianwali Muslim League, 65; b: 1934; ed: F.C. College, Lahore, and U.K. widely travelled abroad.

KHAN, Mohammad Abdur Rouf. T.P. Elected from Dacca Muslim League, 65; b: 1920; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Held important offices in various organisations and banks; joined Muslim League after Independence. Started his own business; also founder of the Ghaus-i-Pak-Azam Welfare Trust which has made large donations for charitable purposes.

KHAN, Mohammad Ayub, T.Q.A. Elected from Hazara Muslim League, 65; b: 1923. Elected to the N.A., 62; elected to the W.P. Assembly, 57; member, Distt. Council, Hazara and Div. Council, Peshawar.

KHAN, Mohammad Haneef. Elected from Hazara-cum-Mardan-cum-Malakand Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Finance; ed: Islamia College, Peshawar and Sind Univ.
Joined Muslim League, 40; started practising at Manshera, 50; later left Muslim League and joined Awami League and was President of Distt. Awami League till 58. Re-joined Muslim League; elected to the N.A., and was Parliamentary Secy. for Finance, 62; attended World Peace Conference in Peking, 58.

KHAN, Muhammad Nawaz, Khichi, Alias Dilwar Khan. Elected from Multan Muslim League, 65; b: 1938; ed: Aitchison and Govt. Colleges, Lahore. Councillor of Provincial and Central Muslim Leagues.

KHAN, Lt. Col. Muhammad Salim. Elected from Lyallpur Muslim League, 65, b: 1916; ed: Punjab Univ.
Joined Army as a Commissioned Officer and served on the Burma front, 40; retired as Lt. Col., 63; joined Muslim League, 63; elected to the N.A., 62.

KHAN, Mukhlesuzzaman. Elected from Mymensingh as a Combined Opposition Party candidate, 65. b: 1919; ed: Aligarh Muslim Univ. and Michigan Univ., U.S.A. Received training in various technical and research institutions of the U.S.A. and Europe; worked as Chief Chemist in cement factories, and as an Officer on Special Duty in P.I.D.C. for sometime; later resigned from service and started his own business.

KHAN, Maj. Nawab Mohd. Shah Khisro, H.Q.A. Elected from Peshawar Agency Muslim League, 65; b: 1923; ed: Bishop Cotton School, Simla.
Joined Indian Army, 43; rank of Captain; appointed Recruiting Officer for Dir State; led *Mujahids* in Kashmir; installed Nawab of Dir, 60; elected to

the N.A., 62; started a number of schools, hospitals, irrigation projects, post offices and other public welfare institutions in the State.

KHAN, Col. Nawabzada Abdul Ghaffor. Elected from Mardan Muslim League, 65; Dy. Leader Muslim League Parliamentary Party; b: 1922; ed: Brown's Cambridge School, Dehra Dun and Govt. College, Lahore.
Joined Indian Army and saw action in France, Burma, Indo-China, Malaya and Siam, 41; after Independence commanded the 6th Lancers; Chief Instructor, Pakistan Armoured Corps; elected to the N.A., 62.

KHAN, Nawabzada Azmat Ali. Elected from Kohat Muslim League, 65; b: 1935; Joined politics, 58; keenly interested in farming.

KHAN, Rana Ghulam Sabir. Elected from Okara Muslim League, 65; b: 1914. Joined Army, 30; retired, 46; after Independence, settled at Okara; elected to the W.P. Assembly, 62; a social worker.

KHAN, Sardar Fazal Karim. Elected from D.I. Khan Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy., Health and Social Welfare Div. b: 1919.
Army, 42; retired as Major, 60; organised Muslim League in his Div. and elected President of both the Div. and Distt. Muslim Leagues, 62; member, Provincial Working Committee of the Central Muslim League Council.

KHAN, Sardar Khizer Hayat. Elected from Campbellpur-cum-Jhelum Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Ind. and Natural Resources; b: 1933; ed: Govt. College, Lahore and Punjab Univ.
Started legal practice at Chakwal; Public Prosecutor, 58; elected to the N.A. and was Parliamentary Secy. for Ind., 62; headed a Pakistan Delegation to the meeting of the Commonwealth Parliamentary Assocn. at Kuala-Lumpur, 62; visited USA, 64.

KHAN, Sardar Mohammad Aslam. Elected from Bahawalpur-cum-Bahawalnagar Muslim League, 65, b: 1916; ed: Punjab Univ.
Joined Audit and Accounts Service in Bahawalpur State, 33; retired after the State's integration into W.P.; Convener, Bahawalpur Distt. Muslim League, 62; President, Distt. Muslim League and Councillor of Pakistan Muslim League; is Secy.-Gen., Pakistan Muslim League; travelled widely abroad.

KHAN, Al-Haj Captain Yar Ali, S.K. Elected from Chittagong Muslim League, 65.
President of Local Union Board for more than 20 years; Chairman Debt Settlement Board till abolition; Vice-President, Distt. Muslim League, Chittagong, 40; member, Bengal Legislative Council, 46; Gen.-Secy., Chittagong Distt. Muslim League, 47; joined Pakistan National Guards as Officer Cadet and served Pakistan National Guards Battalion with the rank of Captain, 48; member, Central Working Committee of the Pakistan Muslim League, 64; awarded President's Medal for 'Pride of Performance' in farming, 63.

KHAN, Malik Nur Mohammad. Elected Muslim League, 65; b: 1914; Elected to Punjab Assembly, 51; re-elected, 56; Chairman, Union Council since 62; elected to the N.A., 64; member, Council of Elders.

KHOSO, Mir Darya Khan. Elected from Jacobabad Muslim League, 65; b: 1924; ed: St. Patrick's High School, Karachi.
A social worker, founded a high school in his own village; joined politics, 62; formed Parliamentary Party in the N.A., 62.

LASKAR, Mohammad Nisar Ali. Elected from Dacca Muslim League, 65; b: 21; ed: Islamia College, Calcutta.
Served on Burma and Assam fronts during World War II; migrated to Dacca, 47; Secy., Dacca Motor Vehicles Assocn.; President, E.P. Chamber of Builders and Contractors; President, Dacca Distt. Transport Employee's Union; President, Pakistan Youth Movement, E.P., Zone; organised the International Industries Fair Dacca, 60; widely travelled abroad.

LEGHARI, Sardar Mahmmad, Khan. Elected from D.G. Khan Muslim League, 65; ed: St. Paul's School, Darjeeling, and Govt. College, Lahore.
Chairman, Distt. Board, 55-58; political detenu, 47.

MAHMOOD, Abdullah Al. Elected from Pabna Muslim League, 65; b: 1902; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Elected to the Bengal Legislative Assembly, 37; Chairman, Sirajganj Municipality, 37-49; Parliamentary Secy., Govt. of Bengal, 43-45; President, Pabna Distt. Muslim League, 43-48; member, Bengal Provincial League Working Committee and All-India Muslim League Council; member, Indian Central Jute Committee and Imperial Council of Agri. Research and its Advisory Board, 45-47; elected to Bengal Legislative Council, 46; renounced title of Khan Bahadur at the Bombay Session of the All-India Muslim League Council, 46; member, Dacca Univ. Court, 47; member, Syndicate Rajshahi Univ.; member, Pakistan Constituent Assembly, 48; elected to N.A., 62; Dy. High Commissioner of Pakistan, Calcutta, 48-51; Minister for Ind. and Natural Resources, 63-65; closely associated with a number of important institutions of his Distt.

MAJEED, S.M.A. Elected from Khulna Muslim League, 65; ed: Calcutta and Dacca Univs.
President, All Bengal Students Federation; Vice-President, All-India Muslim Students Federation; member, Khulna Distt. Board, and Rajshahi Univ. Syndicate; member, E.P. Development Advisory Council, 60.

MAJID, Kazi Abdul. Elected from Rajshahi Muslim League, 65; b: 1910.
Connected with various social and cultural organisations in the Distt., member, Natore Municipality for 25 years and served thrice as its Chairman; elected to the N.A., 62; founder member of Natore College and Jinnah Model School in Natore Sub-Div.

MALIK, Muhammad Qasim. Elected from Bahawalnagar Muslim League, 65; Secy. Gen., Pakistan Muslim League Parliamentary Party. b: 1927; ed: Punjab Univ. Indian Navy, 42-46; elected to the Bahawalpur State Legislature; on integration of States in W.P. elected member of the W.P. Assembly and continued till 58; elected to the N.A., 62; Parliamentary Secy. for Defence.

MASTER, Abdul Aziz. Elected from Bakerganj Muslim League, 65. b: 1891; Joined Muslim League, 40; President, Union Board and Vice-President Than League; associated with various educational institutions in his home Distt. *Publs: Author and poet of several books in Bengali.*

MATIN, Mohammad Abdul. Elected from Pabna Muslim League, 65; b: 1926; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Jt. Secy., Calcutta Muslim Students League; joined United Front and was elected to the Provincial Assembly, 54; Political Secy. to the then Chief Minister of E.P., and President of All Pakistan Handloom Assocn; joined Pakistan Muslim League, 62.

MEMON, Sadikali A. Elected from Thatta Independent, 65; but has identified with the Muslim League; b: 1909; ed: Karachi.
Engineer by profession. President, Distt. Muslim League, Thatta, 47; President, Municipal Committee, Thatta, 52-57; member, former Sind Legislative Assembly, 56; widely travelled abroad.

MOLLA, Azizur Rehman, T.Q.A. Elected from Comilla Muslim League, 65.
President, Brahamanbaria Town Muslim League; Vice-Chairman, Brahmanbaria Municipal Committee; a well-known social worker.

MUKHTER, Sajedul Hoque. Elected from Comilla Muslim League, 65; b: 1924.
Secy., Sub-Div. Muslim League, 39; President, Distt. Teachers' Assocn., 40-54; member, Distt. Board and also Secy. of the Distt. Muslim League; Jt. Secy., E.P. Muslim League, 62.

MUSTAFA, Ghulam Mohammad. Elected from Muzaffargarh Muslim League, 65; b: 1937; ed: Aitchison College, Lahore.
Elected to the N.A., 62; visited China as a member of the Pakistan delegation, 64.

NOON, Noor Hayat Khan. Elected from Sargodha Muslim League, 65.
Elected to the N.A., 62.

OWAIS, Mohammad. Elected from Rangpur Muslim League, 65; b: 1900; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Public Prosecutor; Secy., Rangpur Distt. Muslim League for ten years; President, Distt. Muslim League; member, Provincial Muslim League, Working Committee and Central Muslim League; elected to Bengal Legislative Assembly Muslim League, 46; after independence became a member of E.P. Assembly; a social worker associated with various educational and public welfare institutions, dispensaries and *madrasas*, in his Distt; member, Central

Jute Committee and Div. Council, Rajshahi; visited USA, Saudi Arabia and several countries of Europe, 62.

QIZILBASH, Major Zulfiqar Ali Khan. Elected from Lahore Muslim League, 65. Parliamentary Secy. for States and Frontier Regions. b: 1910; ed: Govt. College, Lahore and Sandhurst.
Military service for 16 years in Italy and Waziristan; Dy. Mayor, Lahore Corpn. for two consecutive terms; Chairman, Market Committee for 13 years; thrice elected to Distt. Board, Lahore; Muslim Leaguer since 1947.

QUASEM, Abul, M.A., LL.B. Elected from Rangpur-Mymensingh Combined Opposition Parties, 65; b: 1915.
Member, Assam Legislative Assembly for Muslim League and Chief Whip, 46; worked with Maulana Abdul Hamid Khan Bhashani as President of Assam Muslim League Action Committee; launched civil disobedience movement against eviction of muslims from Assam; political detenu; after Independence migrated to Pakistan and settled down at Ulipur, Rangpur; elected to the first Constituent Assembly; Jt. Secy., Pakistan Muslim League, 55; elected to the N.A., appointed Dy. Speaker and was leader of Council Muslim League Parliamentary Party, 62; President, E.P. Council Muslim League.

QURESHI, Syed Sajjad Hussain. Elected from Multan Muslim League, 65; b: 1923; ed: Emerson College.
Joined Muslim League, 46; elected to the N.A., 62; Chairman, Union Committee, Multan City and Vice-Chairman of Multan Municipality.

QUTUB-DIN, Diwan Ghulam. Elected from Sahiwal Muslim League, 65; b:1924; ed: Chief's College, Lahore.
Sajjada Nashin of the holy Shrine of Hazrat Sheikh Fariduddin Masood Ganj Shakkar; Chairman, Local Union Committee Pakpattan; member, Distt. Council, Sahiwal.

RAHIM, Choudhury Abdur. Elected from Sialkot Muslim League, 65; b: 1908.
On return was elected to the Distt. Board, 33-58; worked as Assistant Recruiting Officer during the last World War; Senior Vice President, Sialkot Central Cooperative Bank; member, W.P. Assembly till 58; re-elected, 62; joined Pakistan Muslim League, 65; awarded title of Khan Sahib and Jubilee Coronation Medal by the British Govt.

RAHMAN, Ataur. Elected from Rangpur Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Food and Agri. b: 1930.
Businessman; elected to the E.P. Assembly, 62; joined Muslim League, 62; a social worker; President, Union Board of Jandpur; started several educational institutions in his Distt.

RAHMAN, Dr. Habib-ur, M.B.B.S. Elected from Bogra Muslim League, 65; b: 1893, Started Medical Practice, 26; later elected member of the Bogra Local Board and Distt. Board; member, Legislative Assembly of India as Muslim League

candidate, 39-45; President, Bogra Distt. Muslim League till 58; re-elected President of Distt. Muslim League, 63; Commissioner, Bogra Municipal Committee; associated with many educational institutions in the Distt; founder of Bogra Electric Supply Corpn.

RAHMAN, Mashiur. Elected from Rangpur Independent 65; b: 1924.
Joined politics as a student of Dacca Univ., Secy., Distt. Muslim League, Rangpur till 1950; resigned from Muslim League Party and joined the National Awami Party, 50; Chairman, Rangpur Distt. Board, 53-60. Secy., Distt. Sports Assocn. 55-62; elected to the N.A. and was Dy. Leader of the Opposition Party in the Assembly, 62.

RAHMAN, Mohammad Aziz-ur. Elected from Comilla Muslim League, 65; b: 1904; ed: Comilla College and Univ. Law College, Calcutta.
Started legal practice at Comilla, 30. Later joined the Krishak Praja Party and continued to be a member of this Party till 45; joined Muslim League and was Secy. of Comilla Distt. Muslim League, 45-58; took active part in the Sylhet Referendum; after withdrawal of Martial Law when political parties were revived was elected President of Distt. Muslim League and continues to hold it till now; elected to the N.A., 62; member, Board of Governors of the Pakistan Academy for Rural Development; Dir. E.P. Fisheries Development Board.

RAHMAN, Shah Azizur. Elected from Kushtia Combined Opposition Parties, 65. Dy. Leader United Parliamentary Party. b: Nov. 23, 24; ed: Dacca Univ.
Gen.-Secy., All Bengal Muslim Students League; also served as Acting Gen.-Secy. of All India Muslim Students Federation; Jt. Secy., E.P. Muslim League, 48; Gen. Secy., E.P. Muslim League, 52-58; member, Central Muslim League Working Committee for ten years; member, National Democratic Front; joined Awami League, 64; member, Executive Committee of All Pakistan Bar Assocn.

RAJA, Mohammad Ashraf, LL.B. Elected from Rawalpindi Muslim League, 65; b: 1913; ed: Lahore.
Joined the British Indian Army, 40; fought in South East Asia, 41; captured 42; joined the Indian National Army and became its Quarter-Master General; taken prisoner by the British Army, 45; joined Muslim League National Guard, joined Azad Kashmir forces, 48; resigned from service and joined politics; Chairman, Rawalpindi Distt. Board, 54-57; elected to W.P. Assembly and Parliamentary Secy. for Parliamentary Affairs, Law and Inform., 62; awarded Ghazi-i-Kashmir Medal by Azad Kashmir Govt.

RASHDIE, Pir Syed Nadir Ali Shah. Elected from Khairpur-cum-Sukkur Muslim League, 65; b: 1930; ed: Cambridge Univ.
After Independence came back to Pakistan; member, W.P. Assembly, 57; later elected to the N.A.

RAZEE, Dr. Aleem-Al. Elected from Mymensingh Independent, 65; b: 1925; ed: Madrasa Alia, Calcutta, Calcutta and London Univs., called to the Bar from Lincolns Inn, London.

Research scholar of the Govt. of Bengal; practised law in England; joined Dacca High Court and Supreme Court of Pakistan, 55. Founder and Hony. Principal of City Law College; President, E.P. College Teachers Assocn., regular contributor to newspapers on constitutional and economic problems; attended the South-East Asia Regional Conference on Legal Education held at Singapore; represented Pakistan at the World Peace through Law Conference held at Athens, 63; also visited many European and Middle Eastern Countries.

SAIGOL, Mian Muhammad Rafique. Elected from Lyallpur Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Communications; b: 1933; ed: Dehra Dun, Lahore and Clemon College, South Carolina, USA.
Industrialist; Director of leading industrial firms in Pakistan; Vice-Chairman, All-Pakistan Textile Mills Assocn., 62; attended the Duke of Edinburgh Study Conference on "Human Problems of Industrial Communities within the Commonwealth" meeting at Oxford, 56; Chairman, Lyallpur Improvement Trust and member of Lyallpur Div. Council; also associated with several Advisory Committees set-up by the Govt.; Treasurer, Pakistan Muslim League.

SALAHUDDIN, Mian. Elected from Lahore Muslim League, 65; b: 1920; ed: Govt. College, Lahore;
Member, Lahore Municipal Corpn., 51; Chief Warden, Civil Defence, 39; took active part in the Civil Disobedience Movement launched by All-India Muslim League, 47; elected to the N.A., 62.

SARDAR, Ahmed Ali, T.Q.A. Elected from Jessore Muslim League, 65; b: 1910. Treasurer, Jessore Distt. Muslim League, 38-50; President, Distt. Muslim League, 50-56; Chairman, Jessore Municipal Committee; elected to the N.A., 62; member, Provincial Muslim League Working Committee; associated with a number of educational institutions.

SARFARAZ, Begum Zari. Elected from Women's Constituency Muslim League, 65; ed: Punjab Univ.
A social worker; President, Women's Muslim League of former N.W.F.P. 48-58; member, Legislative Assembly of former N.W.F.P., 52-58; elected to the N.A., 62; member, Pakistan Social Welfare Council and Vice-President of Regional Social Welfare Council; President, T.B. Assocn., Peshawar.

SARKAR, Mahtabuddin, B.A. (Hons). Elected from Rajshahi Independent; b: Oct. 12, 03.
Joined the Bengal Civil Service, 27; served Govt. in various capacities; Secy., Health and Local Self-Govt. Deptt. E.P., 58; Addl. Commissioner, before retirement, 63. Awarded title of Khan Bahadur by the British Govt., 46.

SEKANDRA, Begum Kamar Jahan (Dolly Azad). Elected from E.P. reserved seats for women Muslim League; b: 1924.
Active social worker; member, Executive Committee of the All-Pakistan Womens' Assocn., E.P. Branch; member, Women's Voluntary Assocn., a

founder-member of Dacca Ladies Club and Pakistan Muslim League Women's Sub-committee.

SHAH, Makhdoom-ul-Mulk Syed Ghulam Miran. Elected from Rahimyar Khan Muslim League, 65; b: Aug. 5, 05.
Joined Muslim League Movement, 46; Minister for Rehabilitation in Bahawalpur State, 48; later resigned and elected Treasurer of the Pakistan Muslim League; President of the State Muslim League.

SHAH, Malik Ali Man. Elected in the N.A., 65; b: 1919; ed: Punjab Univ.

SHAH, Mian Qamar-uz-Zaman, B.Sc. Elected from Multan Muslim League, 65; b: 1933; ed: United States of America.
Elected to the N.A., 62; Managing Dir., of a transport company and Dir. of Khanewal Cooperative Bank.

SHAH, Sardar Ghulam Muhammad. Elected from Jhang Muslim League, 65; b: 12; Vice-Chairman, Distt. Board for a number of years; President, Distt. Muslim League for twenty years; member, Punjab Assembly, 46; political detenue 1946; re-elected to Punjab Assembly, 51; elected to W.P. Assembly, 62; member, Div. Council; Chairman, Chiniot Market Committee; member, Working Committee of Provincial Muslim League.

SHAH, Syed Ali Asghar. Elected from Rawalpindi Muslim League, 65.
A social worker, started political career as a Khaksar; later joined Muslim League; also a councillor of Pakistan Muslim League; Vice-Chairman, Rawalpindi Municipal Committee; member, District and Div. Councils; associated with local Tuberculosis Assocn., the Anjuman Faizul Islam and several educational institutions.

SHAH, Syed Murid Hussain. Elected from Sialkot Muslim League, 65; b: 1916; ed: F.C. College, Lahore and Punjab Univ.
Founder-member of Muslim Students Federation; Secy., Distt. Muslim League, Sialkot, 42-46; member, All-India Muslim League Council; after Independence elected member of All-Pakistan Muslim League; elected to the N.A., 62; Chairman, Union Council.

SHAHIDULLAH, Mohammad. Elected from Dacca Muslim League, 65; Parliamentary Secy. for Establishment Div. b: 1925; ed: Dacca Univ.
Associated with Freedom Movement since student days; Vice-President, All Bengal Muslim Students League; took active part during Sylhet Referendum; close associate of the late A.K.M. Fazlul Haque; resigned from Muslim League and joined Krishak Sramik Party; appointed Organising Secy. of the Party, 52; member, Provincial Assembly and its Chief Whip, 54; re-joined Muslim League and elected to Provincial Assembly, 63; Vice-President Dacca Muslim League.

SHAIKH, Hasan A. Elected from Karachi Combined Opposition Parties, 65; b: 1912; ed: Bombay Univ.

Started legal practice, 37; joined Muslim League, 37, and was Jt., Secy. of the Bombay Provincial Muslim League; elected Gen. Secy. of the Provincial Muslim League; organised the party election campaign for seats in Bombay Legislative Assembly, 45, and was Chairman of Parliamentary Board; also polling agent of Quaid-e-Azam Mahomed Ali Jinnah in 1946 elections; after Independence, Private Secy. to Quaid-e-Azam; later became Jt. Secy., N.A., also served as Jt. Secy., Rehabilitation and Settlement Commissioner; resigned from Govt. service, 60; returned to Bar, 60; joined Council Muslim League, 62; during Presidential election 1965 worked as Chief Election Agent of Miss Fatima Jinnah.

SIKDAR, Altaf Hossain, B.A. Elected from Jessore Muslim League, 65; b: 1926. President, Distt. Muslim Students League, Jessore, 44-47; Naib Salar-e-Zilla-Muslim League, National Guard, Jessore, 46-47; served E.P., Ansars; Chairman, Narail Union Council, 60-65; associated with various organisations including Regional Transport Authority, Jessore, and Narail College, Jessore; Councillor, Provincial and Pakistan Muslim Leagues; member, Div. Council, Khulna.

SIKDER, Nurul Islam. Elected from Bakerganj Muslim League, 65; b: 1924. A practising lawyer in the Barisal Distt. Court; member, Muslim Students League; later member of the E.P. Muslim League Council; took active part in Sylhet Referendum; elected to N.A., 62; associated with various social and educational institutions in the Distt.; Vice-Chairman of the Bakerganj Distt. Council since 1964.

SOOMAR, A.K. Elected from Karachi Muslim League, 65; b: 1922. Founder-member, Bombay Provincial Muslim League; migrated to Pakistan, 47; entered business; Hony. Gen. Secy. of Textile Merchants' Assocn., Karachi and later its President, 54-59; President of Chambers of Commerce and Industries, Karachi; member, Managing Committee of the Federation of Pakistan Chambers of Commerce and Ind.; member, Foreign Trade Development Council, 50-53; member, Prices Commission, 60; Chairman, Press Trust of Pakistan; 66; member, Advisory Councils of the Ministries of Comm. and Ind. and also on the Advisory Panel of the Min. of Finance.

SULAIMAN, A.S.M. Elected from Dacca National Democratic Front, 65; Whip, United Parliamentary Party; b: 1926; ed: Dacca Univ.
Gen. Secy. Krishak Sramik Party, 56; joined trade union movement, 45, and was the first Gen. Secy. of Unitel Council of Civil Employees of Pakistan; Vice-President, All-Pakistan Federation of Labour; Visited People's Republic of China twice as a member of the Pakistan Trade Union Delegation, 56, and 65; also visited U.S.A., 58.

TALIBUL MAULA, Makhdum Muhammad Zaman. Elected from Hyderabad Muslim League, 65; b: 1919.
Joined Muslim League, 40; member, Sind Legislative Assembly, 53; elected to the N.A., 62. Poet and writer in Sindhi language; associated with various literary and social welfare organisations; Chairman, Sindhi Adabi Board;

President, Jamiat-us-Shura-i-Sind, and also of Bazam-e-Talibul Moula; Visited Europe, Saudi Arabia, Iran and Iraq.

TALPUR, Mir Aijaz Ali. Elected from Hyderabad Muslim League, 65; b: 1933; ed: Oxford Univ.
Member, Hyderabad Distt. Board, 54; Vice-Chairman, Tando Muhammad Khan Municipal Committee, 61; elected to the N.A., 63; President, Institute of International Affairs, Hyderabad; Visited China as a member of the Pakistan Delegation, 64.

TARAR, Ch. Ghulam Rasul. Elected from Gujrat Muslim League, 65; b: 1912.
Elected to the Gujrat Distt. Board, 35; member, Punjab Assembly, 45; political detenu 1946; Punjab Assembly, 51; member of the first W.P. Assembly.

WAHID-uz-Zaman. Elected from Faridpur Muslim League, 65, b: 1912; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Councillor of the All-India Muslim League; member, Bengal Legislative Assembly, 42-47; Elected to the Constituent Assembly of Pakistan, 51; industrialist; pioneer of the Co-operative Movement in Pakistan; Dy. Chairman, Gopalganj Central Co-operative Bank; Secy., Bengal Co-operative Organisation before Independence and Chairman of E.P. Provincial Co-operative Bank; Dir., State Bank of Pakistan since 1948; elected to the N.A. 62; Central Minister for Commerce, 62-65; attended Commonwealth Conference at Oxford in 1964 as a Pakistani delegate; finalised a number of trade agreements mostly with new countries; visited China and concluded an agreement of Rs 600 million interest free loan; widely travelled abroad.

WASSAN, Ghulam Mohammad. Elected from Tharparkar Independent, 65; b: 1911.
Joined Muslim League, 39; Chairman, Distt. Board Tharparkar and member of Sind Legislative Assembly, 45; Vice-President, Provincial Muslim League, and member, Parliamentary Board, 47; also member of Five-Member Standing Committee of the Muslim League Parliamentary Party which was nominated by the Quaid-e-Azam; member, Sind Assembly; later became a member of W.P. Assembly; elected to the N.A., 62.

ZAIDI, Syed Asghar Hossain. Elected from Pabna Independent; b: 1924; ed: Calcutta Univ.
Joined the British-Indian Army and served with the third Parachute Battalion and 15th Punjab Regiment; after Independence organised National Guards in East Pakistan; Vice-Chairman, Pabna Municipal Committee; Chairman, Union Committee; member, Pabna Distt. Council; awarded medals for distinguished war services by British Govt. and Commander-in-Chief's Commendation Certificate for services to the Pakistan Army.

ZEHRI, Mir Nabi Bakhsh. Elected from Quetta Muslim League, 65; b: 1924.
Jt. Secy., Muslim League; Gen. Secy., Baluchistan Muslim League, 51; led a delegation of World Muslim People's Organisation to Iraq, Iran and other Muslim countries, 52; elected to the first W.P. Assembly, 56; elected and appointed Dy. Leader of Muslim League Assembly Party, 62; Vice-President, Pakistan Mine Owners' Assocn.; Chairman; Select Committee of W.P. for Comm. and Ind. Widely travelled abroad; attended several international conferences.

32. BIBLIOGRAPHY

This bibliography is not intended to be exhaustive. The more important and relevant publications on the subjects dealt with in the preceding chapters have been listed below. For a wider study, some of the bibliographies mentioned at the end would be helpful.

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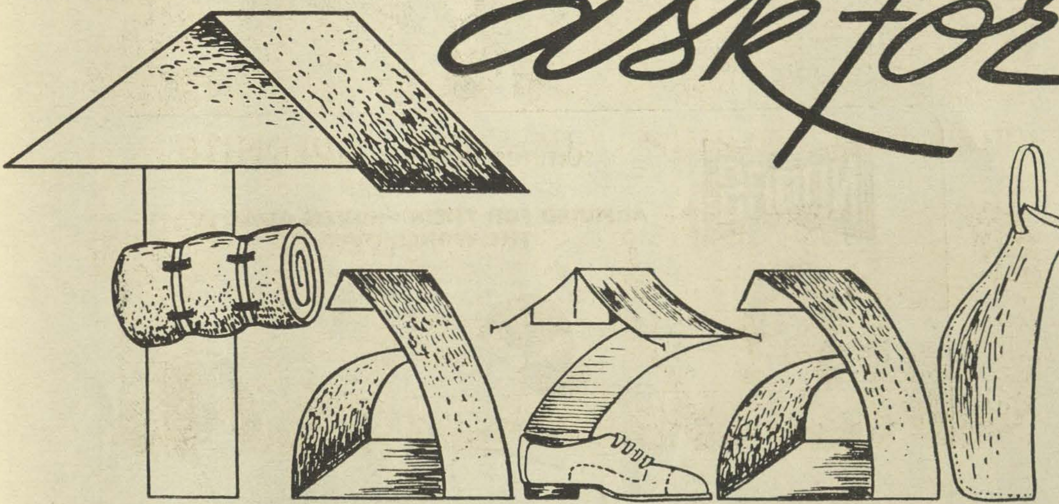
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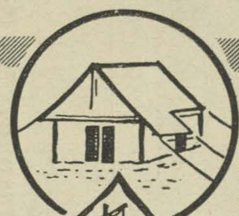
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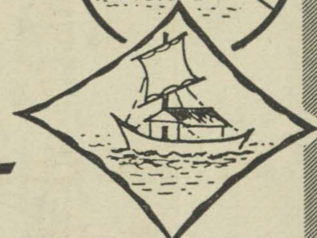


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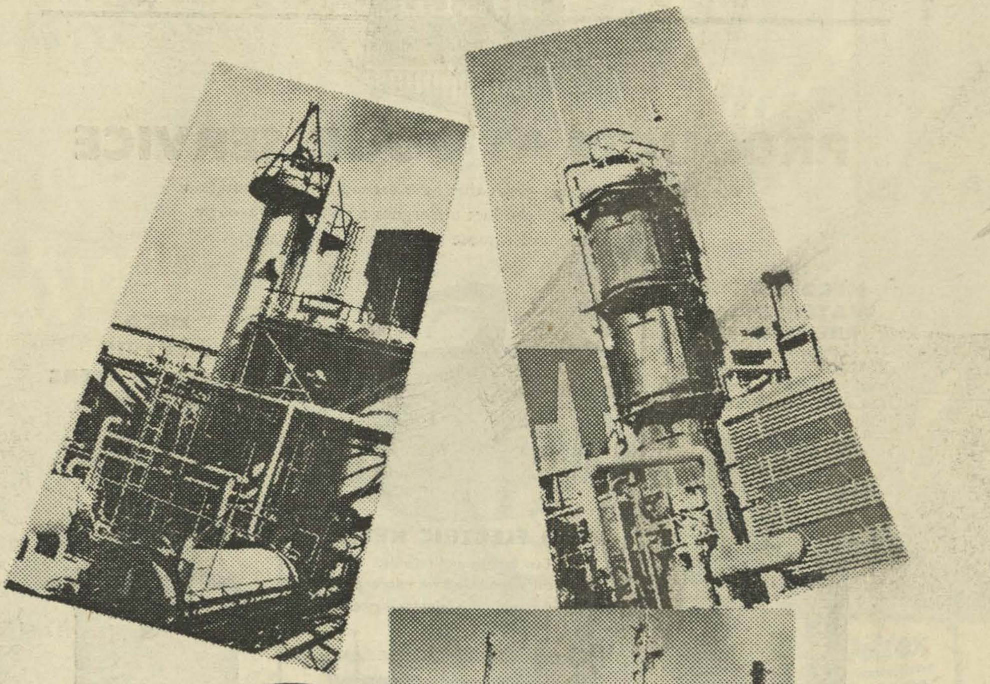
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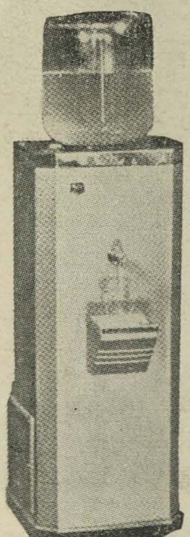
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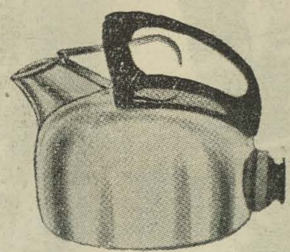
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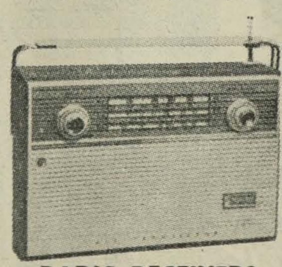
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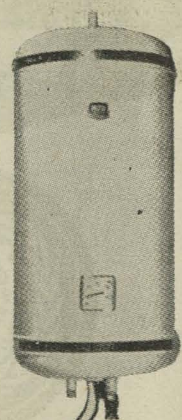


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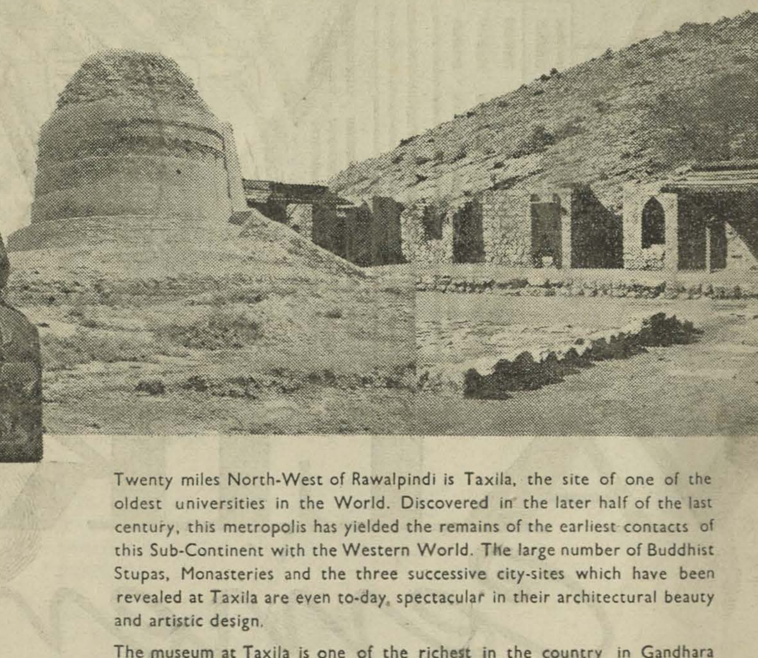
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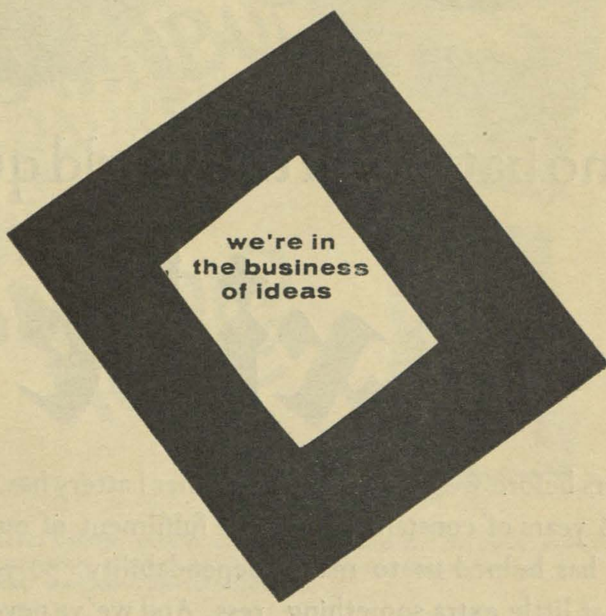
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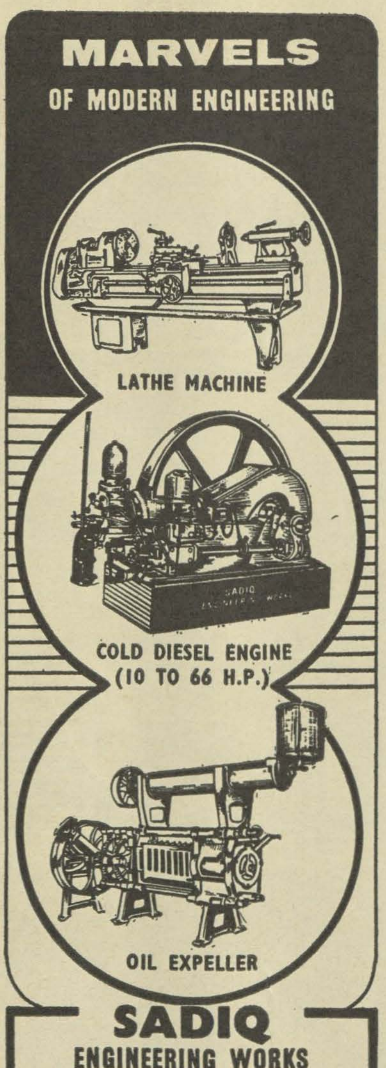



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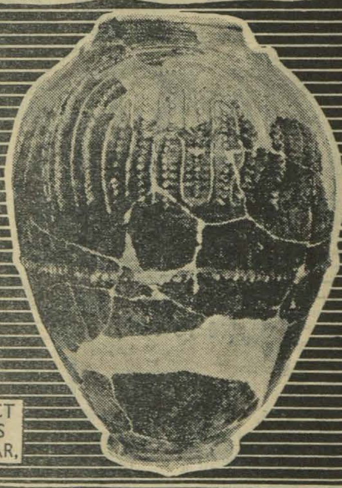
BANBHORE



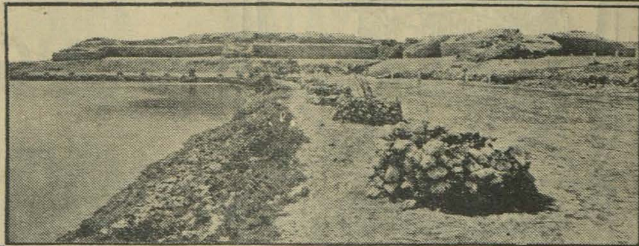
Some 40 miles from Karachi on the national highway lies Banbhore the cradle of Scytho - Parthian, Hindu-Buddhist and Islamic civilizations dating from 1st century B.C. to 13th century A.C.

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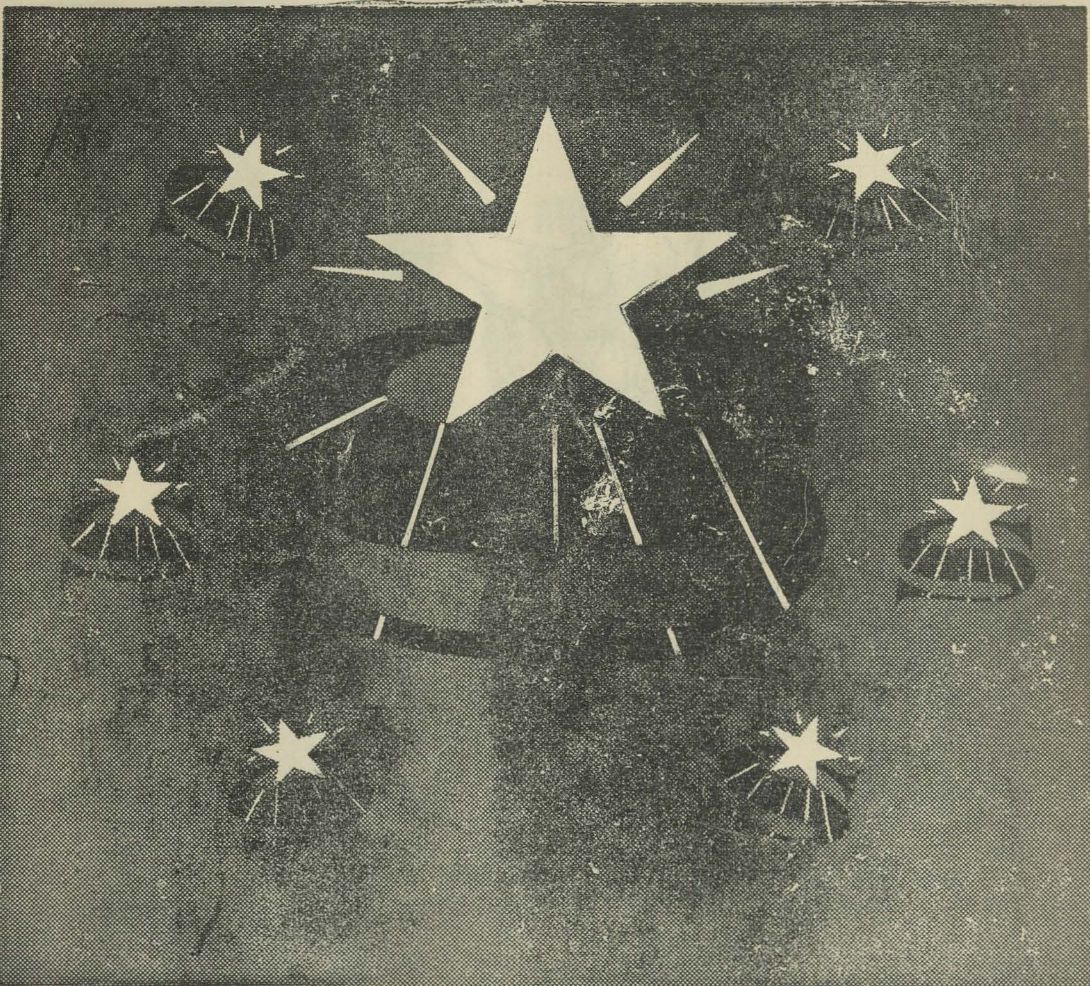
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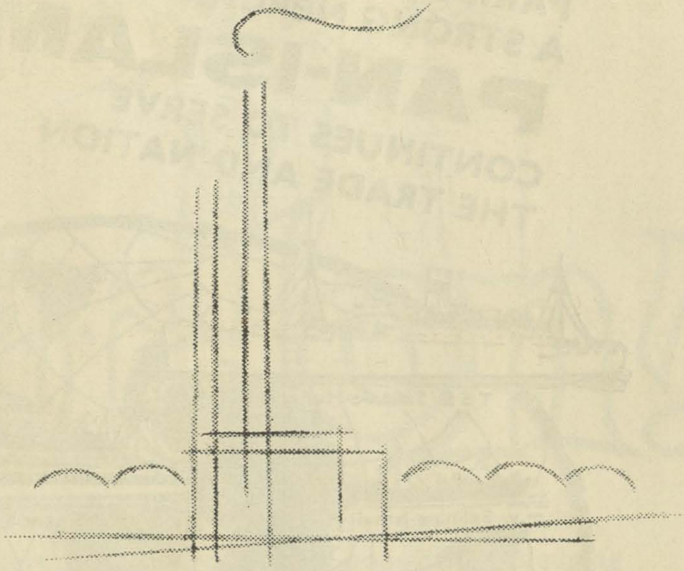
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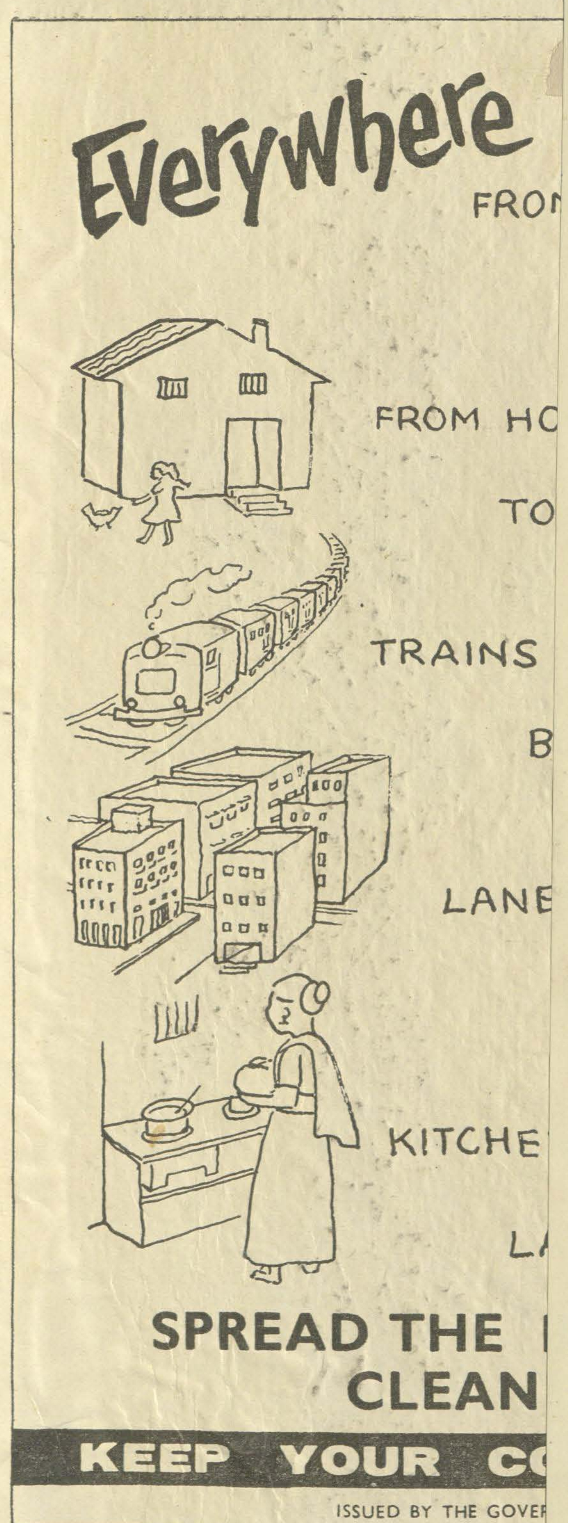
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